

# The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

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Number 6.

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## Realizable Educational Values in History<sup>1</sup>

BY PROFESSOR CALVIN O. DAVIS, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

This is an age of educational thinking. More particularly, it is an age of curriculum thinking. Teachers and patrons alike are realizing more than ever before not only that the program of studies is the backbone of any school system, but that the wise administration of it constitutes one of the most difficult problems of school officials. To-day tradition no longer serves as an adequate guide for curriculum making. Neither does mere individual opinion any longer suffice—even though it be the opinion of those ranking high in the world of educational administration in general. Hence it is rapidly coming about that all keen, alert and progressive educational supervisors and executives are scrutinizing their school systems, entering upon critical analyses of the formulated aims, means and methods found therein and seeking to make the results of the school efforts really commensurate with the needs of the recipients.

While, of course, this scientific approach is the ideal which to-day is set for nearly every phase of educational work, truth compels the acknowledgment that, as yet, realization of the hope is far from being attained in any quarter. Each group of analyzers and investigators is feeling its way slowly, and each frankly declares that, for the most part, no absolutely solid ground has as yet been reached. Nevertheless, each twelve months show advances that were scarcely to be dreamed of in the year previous.

### IMPORTANCE OF SCHOOL PROGRAMS.

As already implied, no phase of school work has recently received more critical and constructive analysis than has the program of studies, and of all the various subjects which compose the typical program of studies none is undergoing more thorough scrutiny and reorganization than the subject of history. Not only are educators of Indiana making this the center of thought and deliberations, but likewise we in Michigan are all astir about the matter, and have at work this very hour at least three separate committees that are struggling with the same vexing problem. More than this, the National Educational Association (as all present doubtless know) has had for some months a rather large committee devoting its attention to the reorganization of secondary education, and not an inconsiderable portion of the time

and efforts of this committee is being expended on the topic of history. In like manner, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has undertaken a study of a slightly different phase of this same subject, and expects to be ready to make a tentative report soon.

So we find ourselves in good company—indeed, in excellent company. Nevertheless, we who have an especial interest in historical studies are contemplating the various analyses and investigations of the subject with bated breath, hoping surely that the truly serious organic defects in the courses may be discovered and remedied, but also fearing, perchance, that some of our own particular pet hobbies and fancies respecting the organization and administration of the work may be blacklisted or eradicated altogether. Nevertheless, I think we all clearly recognize the fact that the present arrangement and treatment of the subject of history—particularly in our high schools—is unsatisfactory. We, moreover, recognize that any further delay and postponement of a rather complete modification of the existing courses will doubtless result in a loss of prestige for the work, if not in a somewhat general abandonment of certain aspects of it altogether.

Hence it is that every sanely conducted experiment intended to test the wisdom and validity of newly advanced ideas respecting the work calls for hearty approval and co-operation on the part of all administrators. So, also, must critical analyses which are sympathetically undertaken be encouraged and given attention. Thus collectively and co-operatively setting themselves to the task will the history teachers and the administrators of school programs slowly and gradually work out together a more satisfactory regime in their field of labor.

The special topic for consideration in this paper is "Standards of Values in History and the Administrative Conclusions" which logically follow from such data. Needless to say, I think, that, scientifically speaking, there are no such standards. In confessing this charge, however, permit me to remind you again that in this respect the subject of history is not one whit behind any of the other branches comprising the program of studies for secondary schools. Within each field some pioneer work has been started, but, I repeat, solid ground has not positively been reached in any department.

### EDUCATIONAL VALUES.

The ideas that I shall advance are the administrative formulations of some commonly accepted con-

<sup>1</sup> A paper read before the District Conference of Teachers of History in Secondary Schools, Gary, Ind., February 27, 1915.

clusions that have the support of many school men and educators, and that commend themselves to my personal judgment. On what, then, does educational value depend and of what does it consist? In answering this question let me group the elements under a five-fold standard. First, educational value must depend somewhat upon the kind, character, quality and arrangement of the subject matter itself. Without stopping at this point to discuss the topic, it seems reasonable, plausible and in harmony with the accepted psychology of the day to affirm that no two subjects in the program of studies can possibly possess identical intrinsic educational values. Botany, for example, is different from Latin, and history is different from both. Hence, to repeat, the intrinsic character of the content itself is a very large determinant of the values that are realizable. Second, educational value of a subject is dependent upon the reaction or response which the individual makes to the ideas when they are presented. Mere passive indifference in class will never bring educational value of any significance to a pupil, even though the subject matter itself were as rich in mental, moral, and æsthetic problems as the mines of Ophir were full of gems, or the forests of Hymettus were full of honey. The wealth of the universe may be unseen and unsought, or it may be exposed to clear view and be easily attainable, but so long as no personal effort is put forth to acquire it, only incidental benefits, to say the most, will be derived. Only to him who knocks will the gates be open; and he only who seeks shall find. In short, that idea is alone educative which (to employ some familiar words of Herbart) "has completed the circle of thought," i.e., has gone through all aspects of the thinking process and has eventuated in modified action. These processes involve attitudes, modes of expression, habits, character, and individuality.

At least three recognizable and highly important corollaries follow from these two fundamental principles. These are:

1. Personal reactions or responses to presentations of ideas will occur, provided the interest of the individual has been thoroughly aroused and perpetuated.
2. Interest will arise, mental life will quicken, curiosity and expectancy will develop, provided the educative material presented is closely related to the past experience of the youth who is being taught, is adapted to his stage of development, and can be seen by him to be capable of functioning in his own life—either somewhat immediately, or, at least, not too remotely.
3. This comprehension by the pupil of the material that is being presented, and this recognition of the possibility of having the acquisitions function in his own life will occur, provided (a) that the course is appropriately organized, i.e., that suitable material has been selected and appealingly arranged, and (b) that the teacher possesses such a knowledge of the subject to be taught, of the mental, emotional, volitional and social qualities of the pupils to be educated, and of the arts of pedagogy that he may be

able firmly to implant the idea in the first place, establish natural interconnections, suggest generalizations, and initiate, right in the class room or at least directed from the class room, ways and means of putting the newly acquired knowledge and powers into appropriate applications.

This, too, is good Herbartian doctrine. It is also, to my mind, good twentieth century doctrine, for the essence of it is that education merely for the sake of education is obsolete, and indicates but a surviving strain of medievalism. It holds that the gaining of knowledge and power as ends in themselves is not one whit different in principle than the hoarding of gold or the unlimited acquisition of lands. Both practices are selfish, greedy, unsocial, anti-progressive, and despicable. Certain it is that any such training or instruction is utterly out of place in a system of schools supported by society at large in a democratic state. A truly democratic society taxes itself, not that it may serve the individual for the sake of the individual only, but for the benefit which such individual training brings to the many.

But to get back. The contention has been made that educational value depends primarily upon the character of the response which a given individual puts forth when the chosen educational stimuli are presented. This response in turn depends upon the degree of interest which is aroused in the pupil; the amount of interest aroused is again determined by the completeness with which the pupil comprehends the subject-matter that is presented, and by the clearness with which he sees the possibilities of relating this material to his own life career; and lastly such comprehension of the subject-matter and such clearness of the functioning qualities contained will be realizable to the degree that the teacher is a master of the special field of knowledge presented, understands child and adolescent nature, is skilled in the arts of pedagogy and knows somewhat intimately the dominant phases of our twentieth century American life. Hence, in the final analysis, educational value is determined largely by the teacher, and a thoroughly capable teacher could doubtless extract educational values for her pupils from any subject one might be pleased to name. Socrates, Jesus, Pestalozzi were men of this type. So occasionally are some few such teachers discovered in our own day. However, it is doubtful if even Socrates, Jesus or Pestalozzi could have succeeded as they did had they been forced to follow any prescribed procedure. Each of these great teachers was unfettered by school systems, was responsible to none but his own self, and was driven forward by an unusual and indomitable personality. For us in the complex society of to-day, with our school systems refined in their organization and administration nearly to the *nth* power, even a great teacher—great, that is, by nature—could scarcely be able to realize his powers, were he to rely on his own knowledge and ideals alone. For the ninety and nine ordinary teachers, a conscious striving for teaching power is absolutely imperative. For 99 per cent. of us at least, therefore, an analysis of the realizable educational values

contained in the subject to be taught is highly important, for without a clear idea of what is possible of attainment good teaching is a mere chance circumstance.

#### VALUES OF PARTICULAR SUBJECTS IN CURRICULUM.

Shorn of all contributory factors, each school subject may be judged, with reference to its educational value, as follows:<sup>2</sup>

*First.* A subject may possess auxiliary value, i.e., value in helping to get the full value from other school subjects. Thus, geometry possesses auxiliary value for the study of physics; history auxiliary value for the study of literature; and a foreign language auxiliary value for the study of the vernacular.

*Second.* A subject may possess practical or utilitarian value. By this expression is here meant the knowledge or power that can be utilized outside the schoolroom, immediately or later on, in gaining a livelihood or in adding to one's material advantages. Thus, hygiene, physics, English, manual training, and civics possess intrinsically varying degrees of practical values, depending on the person pursuing them, the purpose with which they are pursued, and the content and method employed.

*Third.* All subjects possess, in varying degrees, intellectual value, or the quality of developing the power to think. The training only is what is meant here by intellectual value, whether that training be specific or general; this classification does not take account of the value of the subject as knowledge. For example, the intellectual value of a subject is found in the extent to which it develops the following powers:

- (a) Observation, or the ability to take note of the details of an object or a situation.<sup>3</sup>
- (b) Attention, or the ability to concentrate the mind upon the object, event, or process under consideration.
- (c) Perception, or the ability to interpret a present sensation by organized earlier experiences.
- (d) Analysis, or the ability to separate an entirety into its constituent parts.
- (e) Comparison, or the ability to bring different elements into common view.

<sup>2</sup> In the very nature of the case the several groups of values are not delimited by clear and distinct boundaries. Elements, therefore, that are assigned to certain groupings by the present writer might, with equal propriety, be classified differently by another writer.

<sup>3</sup> Doubtless, for the most part, mental disciplines are specific, not general. Nevertheless, insofar as the mental processes involved are similar and the data acted upon possess common elements, the specific disciplines yield general psychological value. Hence any subject of study that develops mental power in varied ways or to a notable degree in limited ways must receive large consideration in planning the education of any individual.

The caution must, however, be urged that the intel-

- (f) Discrimination, or the ability to select essentials.
- (g) Imagination, or the ability to construct mental pictures.
- (h) Conception, or the ability to formulate general notions.
- (i) Association, or the ability to relate mental contents and processes.
- (j) Judgment, or the ability to formulate conclusions respecting two or more percepts or concepts.
- (k) Reason, or the ability to formulate a series of connected judgments.
- (l) Memory, or the ability to recall mental contents and processes once they have passed out of consciousness.
- (m) Expression in oral, written, and graphic forms.
- (n) Resourcefulness, or the power to meet a situation and to adapt means to ends.

*Fourth.* A subject may possess political and civic value. Such a subject fosters an interest in the institutions of the state and municipality, and inspires a feeling of loyalty to them. It also possesses the power of developing such qualities as civic pride, public spirit, civic consciousness, patriotism, respect for law, and political responsiveness. The ideal sought through such studies is good citizenship.

*Fifth.* A subject may possess social values, because it develops the power to make social adjustments with ease and readiness, and thus removes a source of social friction. Such an ideal does not ignore the value of individuality; it seeks rather the adjustment of individual traits to social ends. It includes the development of such personal qualities as toleration, sympathy, consideration for the rights and opinions of others, courtesy, graciousness, tactfulness, fairness, and co-operation. On the negative side the ideal may be expressed by the motto, "Live and let live;" on the positive side, by the Biblical conception of neighborliness.

*Sixth.* A subject may possess ethical value, that is, social value viewed from the standpoint of morality. This means the power to stimulate and develop those personal qualities which collectively con-

tributed to the intellectual value of a subject of study depends largely upon the methods employed in teaching it. While literature, for example, may be made to appeal to the imagination, it may also be made to appeal to the reason, and hence may exercise both those powers. Literature can give little direct help in training the power of observation of material things. Yet it can be taught so as to stimulate the observation of nature and of the physical traits of individuals, and hence can be used as a means of cultivating the power of observation. What is true of literature is true of all other subjects. In estimating the intellectual values of the various subjects, therefore, equally good teaching must be presupposed for all, and the value computed upon the intrinsic worth or qualities of the subject matter alone.

stitute good character. These qualities include (among others):

courage	sagacity	justice
temperance	accuracy	benevolence
chastity	thoroughness	integrity
honor	punctuality	magnanimity
self-sacrifice	forcefulness	faithfulness
self-control	industry	truthfulness

The ideal to be sought under this caption of values expresses itself in the maxims, "To thine own self be true" and "Whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so unto them."

*Seventh.* A subject may possess religious value. By this is meant the power to develop a spirit of reverence, devotion, and submissiveness to the Deity; faith, trust, and confidence in some phase of organized religion; and an acceptance of religious obligations, with a readiness to co-operate in religious undertakings and ceremonies.

*Eighth.* A subject may possess æsthetic value. This concept includes the idea of a power to stimulate a love for the beautiful in its various forms—material, intellectual, and spiritual—and a personal conformity to the accepted laws of good taste. The æsthetic appeal is chiefly to the emotional side of human nature, and involves an appreciation of the elements of material, color, arrangement, and proportion.

*Ninth.* A subject may possess conventional value, that is, the power to develop the graces, manners, and conventions that give standing in polite society. Conventional value is also realized in the prestige which the pursuit of certain subjects gives to the individual pursuing them. The value of such training lies in the fact that certain forms and standards of conduct and certain stock information are traditionally and conventionally expected of educated persons.

*Tenth.* A subject may possess cultural value (in the narrow meaning of the term). By this is meant the quality that directly and immediately satisfies, that finds its end chiefly, if not solely, in the pursuit of the subject for its own sake, or that prepares for the enjoyment of leisure. Such a value considers only the egoistic happiness or enjoyment of the individual acquiring it; seeks truth for truth's sake; or stops at the mere sentimental or intellectual interest aroused.<sup>4</sup>

No one subject in the program of studies possesses notable educational value in all ten of the categories mentioned, or possesses the same degree of value in

each of the several categories to which it belongs. Neither should each of the ten categories be accorded equal importance in evaluating the significance and worth of a subject. Even a small degree of social value, for example, may possibly much more than counterbalance a high degree of conventional value. Nor is it possible to assign exact numerical grades of value to any subject. With interest present (that is, aptitude and responsiveness in the pupils) it is possible, as already acknowledged, that any subject may yield values of worthy kinds and amounts; with interest lacking, it is doubtful if any subject yields true values for youths destined to become free men and women. The one alleged value that is sometimes extolled as characterizing the doing of uninteresting school work is the acquirement of habits of performing disagreeable tasks in general. Granted that the fundamental element of character in any human being is sensitiveness to the demands of justice and duty and responsiveness to these calls, nevertheless, even here the end may not give sanction to the means employed to secure it. It is possible and altogether probable, that these two elements of character may in some cases be purchased too dearly, and that, in securing them, other important forces may be undeveloped, while per contra certain undesirable mental, emotional and volitional traits may be produced. Individuality and personality are too precious human attributes to be jeopardized by employing processes that tend seriously to stultify. There is no great virtue in blind unintelligible habit. An education that is liberal tends to arouse and inspire, not unduly to repress and inhibit. Moreover, success in life cannot be measured solely by objective appearances. There must be a fair balance between independent thinking and unquestioned acceptance of what others think.

While, therefore, the evaluation of school work in accordance with the ten categories above mentioned cannot be accurately obtained nor mathematically stated, nevertheless it conduces to clearness of thought and assists in formulating administrative policies, if the various sub-divisions of history (as at present commonly made in our typical high schools) be analyzed with reference to each group of educational values, and the results recorded in terms of "high," "moderate" and "low." The chart on the following page suggests the plan.

The limits of this paper do not permit of such a detailed analysis of each sub-division of history here. The scheme is presented merely to stimulate others (if they see fit) to make more careful studies of the particular problems, when leisure permits.

It is important, however, to inquire here, What is the specific purpose of history work in our high schools to-day? What are the positive aims which the various courses in history collectively seek to realize for our pupils? The answer, to my mind, is primarily this, namely: To help young people to understand the origin, development, present organization and significance of existing social, i.e., human, institutions, agencies, beliefs, prejudices, customs and aspirations, to the end that they may better adjust

<sup>4</sup> The word "culture" is to-day a very equivocal term. In a broad sense it is nearly synonymous with what in this chapter has been styled "intellectual" training; but in its very broadest connotation it means the training and refinement of mind, morals and tastes. If used in this sense, all civilized men possess some culture; they differ from each other in the scope and degree of culture possessed. Fairly considered, therefore, he who has incorporated into his character and life the ten educational values above mentioned, and has realized them to the fullest degree, has attained to a high state of culture or education.

SUB-DIVISION OF HISTORY *	1 Auxiliary	2 Practical	3 Intellectual	4 Political & Civic	5 Social	6 Ethical	7 Religious	8 Aesthetic	9 Conventional	10 Cultural
Ancient										
Mod. and Med.										
English										
American										
Economics										
Civics										
Industrial and Commercial										

\* Recording standards: High, Moderate, Low

themselves to these forms and conditions, and hence secure for themselves individually greater contentment and happiness, and for the world at large continued progress and prosperity. The primary aim of historical study is therefore (stated concisely) to help bring about social adjustments.

Undoubtedly this single aim could readily be resolved into a number of constituent aims, among which may be mentioned: (a) taste for historical reading; (b) interest in governmental affairs; (c) patriotism; (d) good citizenship; (e) toleration for the beliefs, aspirations and modes of expression of others; (f) sympathy for the distressed; and (g) a background for interpreting social and personal actions. Without, therefore, seeking completeness in the analysis, let us attempt to evaluate the subject of history as a high school branch of study, and then to deduce a few working administrative principles.

#### VALUES OF HISTORY COURSES.

The values claimed for the courses in history in the high school include nearly all the values listed under the ten categories mentioned, and in each category the estimate of worth is usually placed as "high," or at least as "moderate." Thus, history is said to possess large auxiliary value; various kinds of intellectual value; a very high degree of social, political, ethical and religious value; superior worth as a means to aesthetic inspiration; and notable importance in giving practical, conventional and cultural training.

Considered with reference to auxiliary values, history is an important agent in unlocking the secrets of other departments of knowledge; it gives an interpretative basis for the pursuit of all branches of study, and is intimately correlated with English literature, the fine arts, ancient and modern foreign languages, and the sciences. For an adequate understanding of civil government and many current topics and events it is in the highest degree essential.

The twentieth century is distinctively historical in

its mode of thought. In every department of school work, therefore, an historical approach is made. Historical facts give the background upon which to present in higher colors the special material of the particular course. No thoroughly satisfactory course in mathematics, for example, ignores entirely the history of mathematics, and the history of mathematics is again inseparably connected with general history. Hence the auxiliary value of history is high.

On the directly *practical* or *utilitarian* side, the customary courses in history, as usually organized and presented in the high school, have little value, except for pupils who are destined for careers as teachers of history, writers, newspaper reporters, public speakers, lawyers, jurists and diplomats. Nevertheless, they yield a fund of knowledge that tends to give a clearer insight into many daily tasks, and, if presented with reference to specific occupations, possesses no inconsiderable practical worth for all. The courses in industrial and commercial history in particular yield goodly amounts of such values. So, also, do courses in the history of agriculture, the history of art and music, and the history of other special interests in so far as these courses are pursued by students qualified well to pursue them.

As a means of intellectual training history yields a peculiar kind of discipline—a discipline in dealing with human affairs and institutions. It deals pre-eminently with sequences in human affairs, and hence calls for the continued exercise of the powers of analysis respecting the causes and effects of feelings and motives, of institutions and of conduct. It therefore trains the faculty of reasoning with reference to human affairs, and develops the tendency in pupils to follow the current of thought and action wherever it may lead. It likewise demands the employment of the powers of constructive imagination, comparison and discriminating.

The student of history is forced to visualize past events, compare and contrast these with other events, deduce conclusions respecting principles of procedure, and foreshadow possible and probable conditions respecting the future. It demands that the student shall put himself back into the past; collect facts and combine them into their essential and definite relations; give attention to similarities and differences in motives, agents, means, processes, events, places, dates and results; form judgments respecting the probability of the fact alleged, the efficiency of the means employed to adjust means to ends, the righteousness of the act, and the motives and ideals that dominated it, and then, finally, deduce valid generalizations from the facts presented. The study of history, therefore, tends to produce the judicial mind—the mind that impartially considers all the significant facts relating to a problem, scrutinizes them from various points of view, accords due validity to each group of elements, and forms its judgment in the light of the evidence. In short, since history deals with recurring problems in human life, the study of history develops those intellectual powers which best serve the pupil in solving contemporary social problems.

On the social, ethical and political sides the values derivable from the study of history are incomparable in variety and strength. Accounts of the deeds of men and women who have struggled unselfishly and nobly have a charm for youth, fill it with aspirations to emulate the lives of those who have wrought benefits for their fellow-men, and inculcate faith and courage in striving to realize such aspirations. Again, history shows, as no other subject of study does, that man is a gregarious animal and cannot successfully and happily live alone; it reveals the interdependence of men, and shows that while in union there is strength, in disunion there is weakness—possibly death. It extends the pupil's horizon, deepens his sympathies for his fellow-men, and tends to make him conscious of his social inheritance, privileges and responsibilities. Hence it should inspire loyalty to the state and its institutions, and devotion to civic and political duties. It trains the individual to form a better estimate of the motives and actions of his associates, enables him to foreshadow his own probable attitudes and conduct under given conditions, and teaches him to shape his course of procedure in such a manner as to avoid unnecessary friction and strife. Moreover, it tends to give a broad, tolerant view of national traits and character, and to break down provincialism, to reveal the relations and interdependence of one community with another and one nation with another nation, and hence tends to make international intercourse simpler, easier and more permanent. The study of history likewise aids in interpreting many allusions in current conversation and writings; it makes the experiences of travel intelligible; it creates an interest in the resources, tools and processes of one's vocation, and fosters pride and contentment with labor; and it explains racial, economic, religious and social cleavages and prejudices and makes for a truer democracy of feeling and action. In short, the study of history makes individuals sensible of their social and political obligations, and qualified and willing to work in harmony with their fellow-men.

Religiously the study of history tends to give support to the faith that there is "a divinity that shapes our ends, rough-hew them how we will." It reveals the fact that a ceaseless evolution is going on in the realm of intellectual and spiritual things as well as among material organisms, and that ideas alone are constant while forms and processes change. It teaches us, therefore, to see something of the intangible forces that over-ride personal preferences and hinder the application of principles sincerely held.

Aesthetically considered, history stirs to an appreciation of the beauties of men's handwork in sculpture, architecture, painting, musical and literary form, industry and commerce; it reveals the beauties of human genius in adapting institutions and governmental forms and processes to desired ends; and it tends to develop the habit of personal response to the demands of order, beauty and proportion.

As a subject valuable for the sake of pure culture, no branch of study takes higher rank than history. The student who has developed an interest in his-

torical literature has inexhaustible resources on which he may draw for employment during leisure hours and for personal gratification in study and research; while he who has developed the art of writing historical accounts has a limitless field in which to work.

In brief, history is, par excellence, one of the most broadly social subjects in the program of studies. It deals with human motives and affairs; with human interests and conduct; and it ennobles human character, thought and intercourse.

#### THESE VALUES NOT NOW SECURED.

If the educational values of history are as varied in kind and as extensive in degree as the above paragraphs affirm, then assuredly none would deny that the subject deserves a place in the curriculum of every high school boy and girl. Unfortunately, however, as the secondary courses are organized and arranged at present, it is very doubtful, even with superior teaching, that fully satisfactory results are being secured—at least, for many types of mind and for youths looking forward to vocational occupations immediately on completing the high school. Particularly unsatisfactory is the character of the work in history as it is found very commonly in our small high schools, situated in rural or quasi-rural communities. Indeed, the dulling effect of the history work here is not infrequently almost criminal in its influences. Pupils are brought into classes under false pretenses. They enter with high expectations of receiving stimulating information and help, and drop out all along the way disheartened, discouraged, dissatisfied. And what is the cause? It is that the courses have been arranged to fit a logical scheme of administration, and not strictly speaking, the psychological condition of pupils. It is that the work has been for too long a time and to too large a degree planned and imposed by men brilliant, it may be, as historical scholars, but woefully ignorant so far as boy and girl nature is concerned; knowing books intimately and thoroughly, but knowing the practical life of the practical people of the practical twentieth century almost not at all; sensitive to the slightest misconception and misstatement of fact respecting the governmental and social ideals and practices of historical peoples, but unfamiliar and even indifferent to the similar interests that engage the common man and common woman in America today; fluent with expositions concerning the scientific principles that should guide in the gathering and recording of historical data, but contemptuous of history as an art; extolling in exaggerated terms the virtue of knowing one's subject, but cynical, almost insulting, in his attitude toward a pedagogy of history.

I repeat, therefore, that, to my mind, the work of history in our public high schools—particularly in the high schools in our smaller towns and for the youths of no great literary ability—has fallen upon hard lines, primarily because the choice of material, the arrangement of material, the relative emphasis placed on the material had been determined largely

by the college ideal and by men who have not, as a rule, had (and by their very education and experience *cannot* have) an adequate conception of the pedagogical, the social and the practical problems involved in the teaching of history in our democratic schools of to-day. In the scholar's love of thoroughness, completeness and mastery of a limited field of knowledge, historical details have been heaped upon details until the courses in the secondary schools have, in form at least, assumed the appearance of a university course. The typical college specialist who writes history for secondary schools, and the typical college specialist who instills into his students the ideal that to teach is but to secure the mastery of those details, is to-day the evil genius of the secondary school men. Not that the special training of the university professor can be wholly disregarded, but that he shall add to his historical training a training in the theory and practice of teaching history in secondary schools. Failing in this, the demand is insistent that he turn over the organization of secondary work to the secondary school men themselves.

Needless to say, in specific terms, I think, that I personally am very much dissatisfied with much of the work in history in our secondary schools. It is altogether too abstract, remote and pallid for our age and country.

If the premise I advanced some time ago be accepted as valid, namely, that the fundamental purpose of historical study in our secondary schools is to help young people to understand more clearly the origin, development, present organization and significance of existing social (i.e., human) institutions, agencies, beliefs, prejudices, customs and aspirations, then it needs must follow that a greater emphasis should be placed than heretofore on the study of the movements and conditions of the past which still are making their influences felt here in America to-day, and especially here in Indiana, and in the particular local community in Indiana in which the pupil is located. Moreover, I am in thorough accord with Dr. G. Stanley Hall's affirmation that the typical adolescent youth is so constituted physically, mentally, and temperamentally that it is unpedagogical, if not essentially immoral, for a teacher to seek to force him to *master*, during the secondary school period, the minute details of any subject or topic. What the pupil is really interested in and what he is really capable of doing and doing well is to pass somewhat rapidly over a wide range of topics assimilating the grosser elements in each and leaving the refinements of detail to be sought out at a later time. Yokum has expressed this thought clearly when he says: "A fallacious seeking after thoroughness in the sense of exhaustive detail . . . has defeated its own purpose. . . . Even the crudest sort of pedagogical analysis reveals the utter weakness of a high school course that teaches . . . Greek and Roman history, or English and American history in petty detail, in place of that general sequence of historical periods and epochs which assures the only unique contribution made by history to mental training."

All this means that the high school courses in history (as in any other subject) should include a large variety of topics treated somewhat generally, i.e., not exhaustively, and should be vitally connected with the life interests of America to-day, and interpretable through the customary daily personal experiences of the pupils to whom the work is presented. Still farther, inasmuch as it is a well known fact that a large percentage of our pupils in the public schools will not even complete the eighth grade, and that of those who enter the high school a large percentage will not complete the four years' work, it seems perfectly obvious that the courses in history, both in the seventh and eighth grades and in the first and second year of the high school, ought to be something different either in content or emphasis, or both, from what is commonly found in these grades.

#### ACTUAL CONDITION OF HISTORY COURSES.

This thought then raises the whole question of the actual organization of the courses in history in the school. Why are they organized as they are, and what objections can be raised against the order of their presentation?

The serious teaching of history in elementary and secondary schools is, speaking generally, a relatively recent innovation. Indeed, it was not until after the famous report of the Committee of Ten in 1893 that any widespread studied consideration was given the subject either by public schoolmen or by educational theorists. A superficial course in the history of the United States had found a place in the upper grades of the elementary schools as early as 1840, or before; but it consisted chiefly of military history and sketches of the presidential administrations. About the same period, a differentiated course in ancient history was incorporated into the classical curriculum of some of the secondary schools. Occasionally, too, brief courses in general history and English history were offered to the non-classical student. Still later, a so-called review course in American history appeared in the high school, and in time grew to be the advanced course (not review course) which we know to-day.

With the gradual transformation of the public high school into a college preparatory school (an ideal that was not contemplated at its founding in 1821), with the prestige and dominance of the classical curriculum (course) within this school, with the formulation and passive acceptance of the absurd theory that whatever training constitutes the best preparation for college likewise constitutes the best preparation for all other careers in life, and finally with the renewed emphasis of the somewhat converse collegiate notion that general courses of any kind are superficial and inferior, and that intensified courses are alone worth while. Ancient history first crowded out general history from the various curricula, and then was expanded into two courses.

So it has happened that our history courses in the schools have come to consist of a formal (largely memoriter) study of United States history (with a little consideration of government) in the seventh

and eighth grades, ancient history in the ninth grade, medieval and modern history in the tenth grade, English history (if four years' work are provided) in the eleventh grade, and United States history and civics in the twelfth grade. Furthermore, the work is precisely the same for all students electing it, or who are required to pursue it, and, more than that, is centered chiefly about government, laws, constitutions and rulers.

If the test of values is: How has the work affected pupils outside of school, i.e., What do they read? About what do they converse? What interest do they show toward good government? To what extent do they co-operate with others?—if these be the tests of school values, then it is to be feared that for very large numbers of eighth grade graduates history study has yielded little return. If the same tests be applied to the high school, similar conclusions must of necessity be drawn. The fact is, that ancient history in particular, and, to a less degree, also medieval and modern history as now taught lack interest for many pupils, and therefore arouse few responses, and yield small value.

True, it is often held that the story of Greece and the story of Rome, dealing as each does with a single nation and tracing their development from conditions that are relatively simple and concrete, constitutes the most fitting approach to the more complex social studies of our own land and people. Experience, however, seems not to justify this belief—certainly not so far as the theory applies to all types of students. The events are so remote in time and place, the topics commonly treated are so unlike the topics of current interest to-day, and the attention to details is so emphasized and yet so devitalized, that ancient history for large numbers of students (though certainly not for all) is, instead of being a joy and an inspiration, really a nightmare and a bore.

And yet Greece and Rome have contributed altogether too many invaluable elements to civilization to be neglected entirely even by the individual whose systematic schooling can extend no further than high school graduation. But the essential contributions of these two states do not consist primarily nor conspicuously in their wars, nor their lists of rulers, nor their court debaucheries, nor their domestic quarrels. These nations have left their impress on time because of the principles which they originated, and the administrative policies which they inaugurated—principles and policies pertaining to democratic government, art, philosophy, religion, education, private property, and social relations in general. It is for these things the modern world seeks to enter into the life of the past. Nor is it interested to any great degree in the events and facts of the ancients merely as events and facts, but cares decidedly more for the vivid picture of real conditions that prevailed, and the various movements—political, religious, educational, economic, and industrial—that were inaugurated and continued by them with a view to modifying these conditions.

In like manner, the course in medieval and modern history or in English history which devotes page

upon page of the text-book, and class recitation after class recitation, to the consideration of chronological tables of rulers, tedious details of wars and battles, still more tedious details of governmental practices and struggles, court intrigues and debaucheries, and other topics of no vital interest to the pupils—these courses are coming under the ban of educational disapproval. Such detailed, exhaustive and abstract studies are appropriate and right for the adult who already has acquired a wealth of personal experiences, and who has a keen historical sense; they are wholly inappropriate and wrong for the immature, inexperienced youth who is seeking to find himself in the midst of contemporary social conditions, and looks to the courses in history to assist him to do so. It is, therefore, pertinent and legitimate for parents to ask the school authorities: What specific returns their sons and daughters may be expected to receive from pursuing the courses in history that are now commonly offered in the high school, and not a few conscientious superintendents, principals and teachers are considerably at a loss to know how to answer the query honestly. In consequence they not infrequently seek to cover their confusion by reference to some vague idea about culture—an answer that satisfies neither father, son or teacher. Culture is not a mere acquisition; it is a functioning of experience. Nor can it exist where interest is lacking.

#### BASIS FOR REORGANIZATION.

It, therefore, is clearly apparent that some form of reorganization of the work in history in the secondary schools is imperative. Moreover, it seems desirable that such reorganization shall conform somewhat closely to the following ideals and principles, namely:

1. The choice of material to be taught in any given course shall be closely related to present-day interests and institutions.
2. The psychological laws of procedure, i.e., from the general to the particular, the near to the more remote, and the concrete to the abstract, shall be observed.
3. Completeness in the sense of exhaustiveness of details shall not be sought.
4. Each course that is offered shall constitute a unity and not depend on the completion of other courses in order to yield fair values.
5. The resources of the community, the previous historical training of the pupils in the high school, and the purposes which pupils have in attending school shall determine the number, order and character of the history courses to be offered in any given system.
6. Specialized courses in history are desirable for pupils pursuing specialized curricula.

#### OUTLINE OF COURSES.

Assuming that incidental instruction in historical topics has been given in the first six grades of school, and that such instruction has led out from the home, the school and the community, the following outline of courses for the remaining six years of the

school (from the seventh grade to the twelfth, inclusive) constitutes an ideal that seems feasible, practical and wise.

In grade seven, an historical survey of the world, obtained chiefly through the study of biographies, should be acquired. Such studies might well contain (among many others) the events centering about the following: Moses, Abraham, Solomon, Confucius, Rameses, Cyrus, Homer, Socrates, Alexander, Cleopatra, Christ, Cæsar, Mohammed, Charlemagne, Alfred, William the Conqueror, Luther, Elizabeth, Gustavus Adolphus, Napoleon, Washington, Victoria, Gladstone, Bismarck, Garibaldi, Lincoln, Edison. While, of course, in conducting this work some attempt should be made to develop a systematic approach to history, still the ideal here is to inspire a love for historical study, and hence vividness of impression should constitute the chiefest consideration. The biographical plan lends itself to treatment in accordance with the general sequence of time and place, and it is doubtful if more than such incidental attempt at chronological study is wise at this early stage of schooling. An interconnected, unified world-picture can come, and come only, with more mature years and with a re-survey of world events—not once, but many times.

A course of the kind suggested ought to give a new stimulus to the work of the seventh grade, ought to be a means of retaining a larger percentage of the boys and girls in the school, and ought surely to yield a goodly number of the varied educational values to which reference has previously been made.

#### HISTORY IN THE EIGHTH GRADE.

The history work of the eighth grade should undoubtedly continue to be, as at present, an elementary course in United States history. This year is destined to be the last year of systematic schooling ever secured by large numbers of pupils. These persons will step out from under the directive care of teachers and straightway will take their places as juvenile citizens of the state and nation. This year for them, therefore, will be the last year in which to have re-impressed upon them, through the agency of the school, the ideals of the nation, state and municipality. It will be the last opportunity they will have of gaining a systematic presentation of the governmental principles and institutions which American society holds so dear. For policies of state, therefore, if for no other reason, provision should be made at this time for the course in history mentioned. However, such a course should be radically changed in character from the course that is at present commonly given in this grade. Many topics now listed in the year's work should be omitted altogether. Many are too trivial, as for example, accounts of insignificant explorations, Indian massacres and legal disputes. On the other hand, many are too difficult, such as topics relating to the niceties of our diplomatic relations, the establishment and conduct of national banks, and the conduct of our judicial system. But the most sweeping reform of all that is needed is the elimination of great masses of detailed

facts pertaining to the truly worthy and legitimate topics that should be included in the course. Such masses of unnecessary, undigestible and uncorrelated details become merely a dead lift for the memory. Instead of really aiding in giving a true conception of the past, they tend to produce a blurred picture; instead of arousing and holding interest, they tend to check it. Facts, indeed, we must have—and, oftentimes, detailed facts, for facts are the stuff out of which history is made, but trivial facts must not be permitted to usurp the places rightly accorded to salient facts.

It seems very desirable that much of the work of the eighth grade (just as in the seventh grade) should enter about biographical studies. For example, the biographies of Columbus, DeSoto, Cortez, Magellan, Drake, Marquette, Pocahontas, Pontiac, and the long line of other notable men and women who have affected American history should constitute pivots about which to revolve significant related data. Besides biographies, much advantage will accrue from the use of topical studies dealing with the great connected movements and with the institutional development of our country. For illustration, themes such as: The Spaniards in America, the Jesuits, Religious Intolerance, Witchcraft, Territorial Growth of the Nation, Slavery, and scores of similar topics will enlist the active interest of many pupils in whom the formal, dissected, strictly chronological treatment will strike no thrill.

Undoubtedly much of the work of this grade should consist of supplementary readings and oral individual reports, and certainly vital correlations with geography should insistently be sought.

In the later weeks of the course the work may well be made to focus in an elementary way upon local history, and particularly upon the larger features of local government. It should, moreover, contain an elementary study of the larger divisions of vocations which must necessarily engage the attention of all men and women to-day, the general qualifications desirable for entering upon the various groups of vocation, the general training needed for success in them, and the rewards that are likely to accrue to the person entering upon the work. Indeed, the course in history in the eighth grade should be really an introductory course in social science, and, while incidental attention to vocations and vocational guidance should doubtless be given throughout all the earlier grades of the system, nevertheless here some definite, systematic effort should be made to put pupils in conscious touch with the problems of vocational careers, and of the economic conditions into which they are about to enter. Surely no better approach to these all-important questions can be made than through the work in history.

#### HISTORY IN HIGH SCHOOL.

In the ninth grade, in place of the present course in ancient history, a course in the general history of Europe down to the middle of the eighteenth century would seemingly much better serve the ends sought. This course should then be supplemented in the tenth

grade by a course in modern European history (since 1750). The objections to the existing courses in these two years have already been stated. As now organized, they are altogether too difficult and too detailed to stimulate and hold the abiding interest of any but the exceptional pupils. The ages they depict seem so remote to the typical American boy and girl—especially the boy and girl whose earlier schooling has failed to give any clear conception of the measure and extent of time—many of the topics treated seem so unrelated to the interests of to-day, and stress has so often been put upon facts and conditions that only an adult with the varied experience that comes with maturity could even fairly interpret and appreciate that in not infrequent instances the pursuit of these courses has left really no analyzable value for the student, but on the contrary has repelled him completely, and caused him to loathe historical writings of all kinds.

By organizing the history work of these two years into two more general courses than at present (as advocated above), the essential historical topics relating to English history can be incorporated, and be appropriately fused with the continental questions with which many of them, at least, are indissolubly linked. In this manner not only can the history of England be given the proper subordination which belongs to it in an elementary treatment in the high school, but the time that is now so often devoted to a detailed course in the separate subject can be saved and utilized to what seems to be much greater advantage.

#### HIGH SCHOOL METHODS.

Within the two courses as thus modified for the ninth and tenth grades, the mode of treatment should follow, in general, the plan suggested elsewhere. That is, stress should be placed upon developing and impressing true, clearly defined, mental pictures of the real conditions under which society found itself, clearly comprehended conceptions of the fateful movements which were undertaken to express their convictions and to realize their aspirations, and a fair appreciation and a well-formulated notion of the results emanating from the undertakings—results so far as the lives, institutions and beliefs of the particular people themselves were concerned, and results likewise that have affected society subsequently. That is (to reiterate a much employed thought again) facts and events, dates and locations, personages and titles, should be employed merely as the raw material out of which to build up a tightly woven, beautifully designed permanently useful fabric of the past experiences of the race. The acquisitions of history should, therefore, permit the youth of to-day to stand on the shoulders of all previous generations, or, to change the figure of speech, to enable our youth of to-day to snatch the symbols from the past and to continue the endless relay race toward the ideals of progress. To do this, topics must be treated as entities, as unities, and must be developed from their genesis through to their culmination. In other words, the controlling idea in history, as in science,

is the idea of evolution. The purpose is to show how man, through a series of efforts, has raised himself successively from one plane of civilization to another, and a higher plane.

No doubt for the sake of aiding the secondary school pupil to knit the sub-divisions of a course of this kind into a solidified whole some kind of outline, syllabus, or text-book is essential. To grasp the events of history in their diversity and universality is the accomplishment only of the ripe historical scholar. Adolescents in the high school cannot be expected to attain this perfection, nor satisfactorily to approximate it without suggestions and helps from others. Here, then, is presented the greatest opportunity for the teacher—to correlate, expound, illustrate, and apply—and through her analyses and summaries, her comparisons and her generalizations, really to make past conditions to appear before the pupils as a moving picture. General history of ancient, medieval and modern Europe, organized after this pattern and presented after this plan, will, it seems to the speaker, break down the criticisms which to-day are so frequently made by pupils respecting these courses, and really yield the educational values they are designed to yield and are capable of yielding.

#### INDUSTRIAL HISTORY AND ECONOMICS.

In the eleventh grade it seems wise to introduce a relatively new phase of social science. During one semester a course in industrial and commercial history should be offered—the work to correlate specifically with the industries of the particular place in which the subject is taught; for example, in mining sections to emphasize the history of mining, in agricultural sections the history of agriculture and horticulture, in manufacturing sections the history of manufactures. In like manner the commercial side should, so far as possible, take into consideration the commercial forms of peculiar interest to the local community.

Supplementing the course in industrial and commercial history, and yet organized so as to be independent of it, should be a course in elementary economics. Economic problems and economic discussions constitute so large an element in modern life, that no young man or woman whose education embraces that of a high school should be denied the opportunity of gaining some slight acquaintance with the principles, terms, theories and processes that pertain to them. The ideal does not contemplate transplanting a university course into the junior year of the high school, but it does propose to give to the ninety per cent. of high school boys and girls who never will continue their schooling in a college a modicum of the advantage which the ten per cent. of students who will ultimately enter college will possess.

The two semestral courses thus advocated should yield distinctively practical value. Moreover, there is no reason why they cannot be made to yield all other values which any course in history can yield. The decade is fast waning that holds that to be prac-

tical is to be uncultural. Culture and serviceability are but the two sides of the same shield. Whichever one sees will depend on his point of view; but both sides can be seen if effort be made to observe them.

#### AMERICAN HISTORY AND CIVICS.

In the senior year a thorough, systematic course in American history and civics is probably firmly established in our policies—and justly so. In this course the work should center chiefly about constitutional and political topics—the events and movements that have produced the democracy of to-day. It should be the culminating course in point of completeness and importance as well as in point of order of all the history work in the secondary school. It should gather up the threads of all previously considered efforts at self-government, and bind them together into a cable that shall link the present to the past, and the past to the present in an indissoluble manner.

Whether the work in history and in civics should be pursued concurrently, or whether the two phases should be taken up serially in separate sub-courses, may be a matter of personal preference and local convenience. Seemingly, however, greater advantage will be secured by following the latter policy. To be sure, many topics relating to the conduct of national civil government can best be considered and comprehended if discussed at the time the historical conditions which gave rise to them are discussed. And they should be thus taken up. Nevertheless, a more systematic study of these national questions in a course devoted entirely to government must tend to give greater mastery of the subject than can possibly be acquired in a course in which the existing forms and practices of government are given only incidental attention.

On the other hand, it is exceedingly doubtful if it is really worth while to stress the study of the subdivisions of our national government, and the functions of each, to the extent it has been our custom to do. Here, again, as has already been pointed out in several instances, teachers have grossly erred in seeking after details. What profits it to the typical high school boy or girl if he or she is able to quote large portions of the Constitution of the United States, knows glibly the mode of electing congressmen, and can name in order the particular persons who for the time being constitute the President's cabinet, if at the same time he is shamefully ignorant of the salient governmental forms and processes of his own state and community, is unfamiliar with the broader aspects of the civic problems that daily are affecting him, and is unstimulated and hence untrained to assume the various civic responsibilities that devolve upon every one as citizens, and devolve upon him in a peculiar manner because of the enhanced opportunities he has enjoyed?

National politics must assuredly not be ignored entirely in a course in government, but state, county, township, municipal, village and district governments touch the lives of our citizens one hundred times where the operations of the federal government

touch it once. It seems reasonable, therefore, to urge that state and local civics shall be given precedence and emphasis in the instruction in government in our high schools. Such attention can best be provided in a course in civics that is separate and distinct from the courses in history, but that is built upon the history courses as a foundation.

#### SUMMARY.

This, then, by way of summary, is the character and order of the various courses in social science, which, to the speaker, seem best suited to the needs of the general student in the seventh and eighth grades and the high school, namely:

Seventh Grade—Biographical World History.

Eighth Grade—Elementary U. S. History, Local History and Vocational Guidance.

Ninth Grade—General History of Europe to 1750.

Tenth Grade—General History of Europe since 1750.

Eleventh Grade—Industrial and Commercial History (half course). Elementary Economics (half course).

Twelfth Grade—United States History (half course). Civics (half course).

In addition to these general courses, designed chiefly for the general student, certain specialized courses in history may appropriately find places in the program of studies of some cities and towns. Among these courses may be mentioned the following:

Ancient History.

History of England.

History of France.

History of Germany.

History of Music.

History of Fine Arts and Architecture.

History of Education.

History of Particularized Vocations.

Which of the above special courses should be given in any particular school system (if any should be given at all) is for the school authorities conversant with local needs to determine. Probably, for few, will it be feasible or desirable to include any of them.

In conclusion, therefore, permit me to affirm that dogmatism has been farthest from my intent in what I have here presented. Undoubtedly there are those present who will object seriously to the claims I have made respecting the values of history, and particularly will they object to the schematic arrangement and content of the courses I have advocated. I have no quarrel with any such honest opponents. One of the important lessons to be learned from the study of history is that of tolerance—a respect for the opinions and experiences of others. I trust that I have to a fair degree learned that lesson. Certainly few are entirely satisfied with the content, organization and arrangement of the courses in history as we find them to-day in our high schools. I have endeavored to give you in brief the

principles and plans which to me indicate the general character of the reforms that are needed in respect to them. The four especially desirable changes which I wish particularly to reiterate are:

1. Taking ancient history as such out of the ninth grade, and transferring it (if given at all) to the twelfth grade and making it elective.

2. Merging English history with the courses in general European history on one side, and with the course in American history on the other side, and thus gain an additional year's time to which may be allotted half courses in industrial and commercial history and elementary economics.

3. The elimination of needless details in the presentation of the work in all the courses, and thereby make the history work in the secondary schools really secondary school history and not university studies.

4. Vitalizing all history work by relating it intimately to the lives and experiences of the boys and girls who are pursuing it, and to the current practices of society of to-day.

May I bring this address to a close, therefore, by quoting a few words from the introductory paragraphs of the New York Syllabus in History for High Schools. The thought there expressed accords

thoroughly with mine, and may give support to the message that I have sought to bring you. The syllabus reads, in part, as follows:

"The value of history to a student of high school age lies in the fact that it enables him to understand the world in which he is living, and develops in him a certain power to cope with present-day problems by virtue of the widened experience which history gives. In teaching the subject, therefore, the teacher should not lose sight of this aim, otherwise the study is likely to degenerate into the mere accumulation of facts of no relative importance to the students. A genetic treatment of history being desirable, whatever method may be employed, the unity of the human race should be kept in view. The acquisition of facts is mainly a memory exercise. The real value of history lies in the appreciation it gives of mankind as a whole, and of the advance of civilization. All teaching should enable the student to draw conclusions from facts, considering such facts as means and not as ends. The study of natural conditions, of religion, art, government, industrial, commercial and social relations should be emphasized, because it furnishes the key to the history and destiny of a people."

## Local History in the College Curriculum

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM K. BOYD, TRINITY COLLEGE, DURHAM, N. C.

There are two notable tendencies in the writing of American history. One is the passing of the general history of the United States, except for purposes of instruction. The day of the Hildreths and the Bancrofts is past. Our leading historical works treat of some epoch, some phase, or some topic in our history. Another tendency is to emphasize social and economic influences. Witness the series of financial histories of the States planned by the Carnegie Institution, the titles of doctoral dissertations, and the larger space given to economic and social influences in our textbooks. Now every teacher of American history in our colleges has before him a serious problem, to introduce those electing a second or third year in the subject to the highly specialized methods and results of contemporary historical works without sacrificing that live interest which comes from a broad, general conception of historical movements. In short, the undergraduate after one or two courses in American history has reached a stage in his intellectual development for which general works are not sufficient, yet he is not ready for the intensive but rather limited outlook of the university seminar. I believe that this situation can be met by the study of local history, either that of a state or of a region, in which the lecture and recitation methods are combined with those of the seminar. In fact, such a course should have certain distinct advantages.

Not the least of these is the relation of the student to citizenship. The border line between past politics and present duties is rapidly dwindling; the pub-

licists are turning as never before to the facts of history for guidance, and the historians are professing greater efforts to understand the present in the light of the past. Where can the teacher find a better laboratory of experience which will give the nascent citizen a perspective for the actual duties of citizenship that he shall soon assume, than in the history of the State or the region in which he will live? Should not a survey of racial, economic and political development of his State or section give the young voter a certain intelligence of value to him in discharging the duties and obligations of citizenship?

Another value of local history is the library equipment. Few college libraries have established in the past, or can now afford to build up, a vast collection of sources and authorities necessary for the thorough investigation of any period in our history, such as the colonial, the revolutionary, or the reconstruction periods. Only in the college located near a large city or government library can advanced courses in these larger fields of American history be satisfactorily given. On the other hand, most of the sources and authorities for an intelligent yet intensive study of a State in all periods of its development can be assembled at no great expense; a journey for supplementary material to the State capitol is possible, whereas such a journey to Washington, New York or Boston is practically out of the question for those colleges located in the provinces. Supplementary material serving to integrate the experience of a State in the course of national development forms

part of the general equipment for the first year's course in American history. Therefore, in availability of sources and authorities local history has a distinct advantage as a field for advanced instruction.

Approach from the angle of local experience has the value of visualizing and vitalizing problems in our national development. For instance, there is no more abstruse question in a general course in American history than the political and constitutional development in the colonies during the eighteenth century. Tracing the experience of one colony for whose history the student has some personal tie, gives a sense of local color and vital interest. With that local interest aroused, it is easy to consider more briefly the constitutional and imperial problem as revealed in the experience of other colonies, and so to dispel many of the popular errors concerning the American revolution. Likewise, there are always difficulties in presenting the antecedents of the Federal Constitution and the contest over its ratification. Studied from the angle of a home or a neighboring state these problems become visualized, and transition to conditions throughout the country becomes easy. In fact, every important movement in the history of a State or of a region has its place in some larger national development of importance. Thus a study of State or of regional history becomes a cross section of national history; unlike any period of national history, its sources may be, to a large extent, assembled in a college collection.

A course in local history has certain by-products. One is the collection of sources and authorities. State historical publications, such as colonial records, the reports of historical societies and historical commissions, can easily be obtained; also the various State histories and biographies of public men. Experience soon reveals that these are not sufficient for intensive or thorough work. The laws (sessional), legislative journals and documents, pamphlets, newspapers and magazines, will be necessary. Much of this material is wasting away in garrets, old libraries, and the offices of lawyers, judges and politicians. Frequently students know of these, and can secure their presentation to the college. Thus may begin a collection of local Americana. Such a work attracts the attention of the intellectual class and of public men in the constituency of the college, and so adds to the local prestige of the institution. The college authorities will also probably be responsive, and lend material, as well as moral support, to the cause. The antiquarian taste of the students is also developed. They learn the relative value of fine contemporary editions of poetry or fiction, and copies of colonial laws, broadsides and legislative journals. Within a few years a vast amount of printed material of incalculable value may be collected. The field of manuscripts is also inviting, but it is more difficult to cultivate.

The other by-product of the local history course consists of the essays written by the students. It is too much to expect from each a new contribution to knowledge, but all should be assigned subjects for

which at least the principal sources are available. To those that show qualifications topics should be assigned that have possibilities for productive research. Here lies the greatest opportunity of the local history course. To the student who has literary ambitions, it offers a definite subject and the sources for its treatment, and his efforts may result in a contribution worthy of publication. The student of American history may reach this stage in training before the student in European history or literature. Moreover, the field of American history most uncultivated is that of State history, especially between the years 1790 and 1860. There is no reason why the researches of the advanced undergraduate may not do something toward the harvest.

Let me give a practical illustration of the ideas thus outlined. Twenty-two years ago instruction in the history of North Carolina was offered in Trinity College, and it has been continued since with the exception of a few years. The course was at first limited to the colonial period. To-day it extends to 1860, with a more limited survey of the social and political development in Virginia, South Carolina and Georgia. A general interest in the subject beyond the class-room led to the organization of an historical society for public discussion and the collection of historical material. Soon a museum was established, to which have been presented over 5,000 manuscripts, 2,500 books and pamphlets, and several hundred relics. For the publication of the more important essays a series of historical papers was established, and later for the publication of books, the John Lawson monographs.<sup>1</sup> An experiment somewhat similar has long been under way at the University of North Carolina, and recently it has been undertaken at the State Normal and Industrial College. The three institutions use the same syllabus for class-room reference.<sup>2</sup>

Positive results are hard to estimate; but it is safe to say that more than one student has found his way into history as a profession through the local history course and its allies, the history club and publications; some have found topics that later panned into doctoral dissertations; much valuable historical material has been collected, and some contributions to knowledge have been made.

"The Teacher" (Philadelphia) for May contains a paper by Mr. G. S. Greene, of the West Philadelphia High School for Boys, showing how history classes in that school are using a new method of study by filling in outlines written on the blackboard.

<sup>1</sup> Historical Papers of the Trinity College Historical Society, Series I-X; The John Lawson Monographs, Vols. I-III.

<sup>2</sup> Boyd and Hamilton, "A Syllabus of North Carolina History," Durham, N. C. 80 cents.

# Last Twelve Years of British Diplomacy

BY PROF. M. W. TYLER.

The present European war has given us all an interest in the diplomatic policy during the years that preceded it. For the American who would rightly judge the merits of the different claims for sympathy put forth by the warring powers must gain some understanding of the policy pursued by each of them during the critical years preceding the outbreak of hostilities. This is an attempt to trace the policy of one of these powers—England. It cannot claim to be an exhaustive study; for in the time allowed it is possible to treat of a few phases only, and even these must be dealt with in a somewhat cursory manner. Nor can it claim to be conclusive, for any study of modern diplomatic history can only be, with our present lack of sure information, a number of gigantic hypotheses supported by an only too insecure scaffolding of fact.

It will probably be agreed that diplomatic policy in the main is conditioned by external circumstances to which it constantly strives to adjust itself. But the foreign policy of a popularly-governed state is also conditioned by internal circumstances—namely, the amount of popular support that can be secured for any given line of diplomatic action. Hence we must give some attention to the state of opinion in England regarding the proper conduct of foreign policy.

It seems, generally speaking, to fall into three parties, or view-points. The first is composed of those who emphasize the importance of internal as opposed to external policy, who devote their attention to the great social questions with which England is confronted, more or less to the exclusion of England's position abroad. As a body they are probably not believers in peace at any price, although there are undoubtedly many sympathizers with this policy in their midst. The second party, diametrically opposed to the first, urged the importance of foreign policy over the settlement of internal questions. Undoubtedly smaller than the first group they made up in vehemence of expression for what they lacked in numbers. Finally there was a third group to which the great majority of England's foreign statesmen seem to have belonged. To them foreign and internal policy went hand in hand; and if this dual interest delayed the attainment of the ends desired in either the foreign or domestic field of effort, at least this was better than advance in one field and neglect in the other. Such, as it seems to me, were the divisions of English public opinion, and to gauge the amount of support that would be given to any specific line of policy was no easy task for those who were guiding the foreign affairs of their country.

Moreover, circumstances have been constantly changing. The twelve years covered in this paper have witnessed the rise of German power, the downfall and recovery of Russia, the birth of a new

France and its colonial expansion in Northern Africa, then last, but not least, the growth of the Slav problem in the Balkans, which has brought such trouble on us to-day. To do more than touch on the methods by which British foreign policy has dealt with these questions is all that can be done.

The Boer war closed with England isolated in Europe. But this was speedily corrected by the formation of an entente with France in 1904, further extended in 1907 by the adhesion of Russia. While these closer relations with the two European opponents of Germany might seem to indicate an anti-German policy, it seems probable that such a plan did not enter into the minds of either those who formed these relations or those who administered them, as is seen by the repeated attempts made by English statesmen to better the relations of their nation with Germany. If England's policy in the last twelve years has shown an anti-German tendency it is because English statesmen have felt that Germany's policy was a deliberate attempt to upset the balance of power in Europe and to render themselves supreme.

The new arrangements were soon put to the test. The agreement with France in 1904 arranged the division of Northern Africa between the two countries recognizing England's preponderance in Egypt; France's in Tunis, Algeria and Morocco, and leaving a buffer in Tripoli, soon to fall into the hands of Italy. But, unfortunately, matters could not be settled so simply. In the case of Egypt, Tunis and Algiers, Europe had little cause to complain, but in the case of Morocco there were certain international agreements that could not be dealt with in this summary fashion, and which were sure to provide a convenient handle for any power wishing to make trouble. This handle Germany seized, using as a pretext her trade interests in the country. Although she was able to restore by the convention of Algeiras in 1906, the idea of international control in Moroccan affairs, the only result was to give international, instead of merely English sanction, to France's preponderance there. But, like many international agreements, it was loosely drawn and left many a doubtful point to quarrel over. In 1911, Germany again opened the question. The French government seems to have been weakened in their resistance by the intrigues of Joseph Caillaux who, so far as can be judged, desired to win the support of Germany by concessions in central Africa. Evidently feeling that all that was necessary to win France over to this policy was a show of aggressiveness, she sent the gunboat "Panther" to Agadir. But England could not endure a Moroccan settlement in which she was not consulted, much less a disruption of the Triple Entente. Her protests became so threatening that Germany finally gave way and allowed France a free

hand in Morocco, receiving in return certain territories in Central Africa.

England's policy in the other threatening question—that of the near East—has been, at least theoretically, an almost perfect one. She, alone of the powers, seems to have realized that this question was an

international danger, and therefore one for all the countries to settle. But her plea for an international settlement fell on deaf ears, for, except in a few instances, the European concert did nothing but wrangle. The question was left to settle itself with results known to us all.<sup>1</sup>

## The Teaching of International Law

Upon the invitation of the American Society of International Law, a conference of teachers of international law and related subjects was held in Washington, April 23 to 25, 1914. Forty-one colleges and universities were represented at the conference. After careful consideration and discussion, the conference unanimously adopted resolutions urging measures which it believed would maintain, develop and increase sound and progressive ideas on international law. These resolutions follow:

### RESOLUTION No. 1.

*Resolved*, That the Conference of Teachers of International Law and Related Subjects hereby recommend to the American Society of International Law the appointment of a Standing Committee of the Society on the Study and Teaching of International Law and Related Subjects, upon lines suggested by the recommendations of the Conference.

### RESOLUTION No. 2.

*Resolved*, That, in order to increase the facilities for the study of international law, the Conference hereby recommends that the following steps be taken to improve and enlarge library and reference facilities:

(a) That a carefully prepared bibliography of international law and related subjects be published, with the names of publishers and prices so far as these may be obtainable, with special reference to the needs of poorly endowed libraries.

(b) That there be published likewise a carefully prepared index or digest of the various heads and sub-heads in international law, with references to all standard sources of authority upon each head.

(c) That there be published in a cheap and convenient form all documents of State, both foreign and domestic, especially Latin-American, bearing upon international law, including treaties, documents relating to arbitration, announcements of State policy, and diplomatic correspondence, and that the aid of the Department of State be solicited in securing copies of such documents for publication.

(d) That at short intervals a bulletin be published, containing excerpts from the Congressional Record and other current sources, giving reliable information upon international questions arising from time to time, and the final disposition of such questions.

(e) That a law reporter of international cases be issued.

<sup>1</sup> A summary of an address delivered to the New England Association, October 23, 1914.

### RESOLUTION No. 3.

*Resolved*, That, in order further to increase the facilities for the study of international law, the Conference recommends that steps be taken to extend the study of that subject by increasing the number of schools at which courses in international law are given, by increasing the number of students in attendance upon the courses, and by diffusing a knowledge of its principles in the community at large, and, more particularly:

(a) That, as the idea of direct government by the people grows, it becomes increasingly essential to the well-being of the world that the leaders of opinion in each community be familiar with the rights and obligations of States, with respect to one another, as recognized in international law. Hence, it has become a patriotic duty, resting upon our educational institutions, to give as thorough and as extensive courses as possible in this subject.

(b) That a course in international law, where possible, should consist of systematic instruction extending over at least a full academic year, divided between international law and diplomacy.

(c) That prominent experts in international law be invited from time to time to lecture upon the subject at the several institutions.

### RESOLUTION No. 4.

*Resolved*, That, with a view of placing instruction in international law upon a more uniform and scientific basis, the Conference makes the following recommendations:

(a) In the teaching of international law emphasis should be laid on the positive nature of the subject and the definiteness of the rules.

Whether we regard the teaching of value as a disciplinary subject or from the standpoint of its importance, in giving to the student a grasp of the rules that govern the relations between nations, it is important that he have impressed upon his mind the definiteness and positive character of the rules of international law. The teaching of international law should not be made the occasion for a universal peace propaganda. The interest of students and their enthusiasm for the subject can best be aroused by impressing upon them the evolutionary character of the rules of international law. Through such a presentation of the subject, the student will not fail to see how the development of positive rules of law gov-

erning the relations between States has contributed towards the maintenance of peace.

(b) In order to emphasize the positive character of international law, the widest possible use should be made of cases and concrete facts in international experience.

The interest of students can best be aroused when they are convinced that they are dealing with the concrete facts of international experience. The marshalling of such facts in such a way as to develop or illustrate general principles lends a dignity to the subject which cannot help but have a stimulating influence.

Hence, international law should be constantly illustrated from those sources which are recognized as ultimate authority, such as: (a) cases, both of judicial and arbitral determination; (b) treaties, protocols, acts and declarations of epoch-making congresses, such as Westphalia (1648), Vienna (1815), Paris (1856), The Hague (1899 and 1907), and London (1909); (c) diplomatic incidents ranking as precedents for action of an international character; (d) the great classics of international law.

(c) In the teaching of international law, care should be exercised to distinguish the accepted rules of international law from questions of international policy.

This is particularly true of the teaching of international law in American institutions. There is a tendency to treat as rules of international law certain principles of American foreign policy. It is important that the line of division be clearly appreciated by the student. Courses in the foreign policy of the United States should, therefore, be distinctly separated from the courses in international law, and the principles of American foreign policy, when discussed in courses of international law, should always be tested by the rules which have received acceptance amongst civilized nations.

(d) In a general course on international law, the experience of no one country should be allowed to assume a consequence out of proportion to the strictly international principles it may illustrate.

#### RESOLUTION No. 5.

*Resolved*, That the Conference recommends that a major in international law in a university course leading to the degree of doctor of philosophy be followed, if possible, by residence at The Hague and attendance upon the Academy of International Law, which is to be established in that city; that it is the sense of the Conference that no better means could possibly be devised for affording a just appreciation of the diverse national views of the system of international law or for developing that "international mind" which is so essential in a teacher of that subject; and that therefore as many fellowships as possible should be established in the Academy at The Hague, especially for the benefit of American teachers and practitioners of international law.

#### RESOLUTION No. 6.

*Resolved*, That it is the conviction of this Conference that the present development of higher education in the United States and the place which the United States has now assumed in the affairs of the Society of Nations justify and demand that the study of the science and historic applications of international law take its place on a plane of equality with other subjects in the curriculum of colleges and universities, and that professorships or departments devoted to its study should be established in every institution of higher learning.

#### RESOLUTION No. 7.

*Resolved*, That, in order adequately to draw the line between undergraduate and graduate instruction in international law, the Conference makes the following recommendations:

Assuming that the undergraduate curriculum includes a course in international law, as recommended in Resolution No. 6, the Conference suggests that graduate instruction in international law concerns three groups of students:

(a) Graduate students in law.

(b) Graduate students in international law and political science.

(c) Graduate students whose major subjects for an advanced degree are in other fields; for example, history or economics.

The first two groups of students have a professional interest in international law, many having in view the teaching of the subject, its practice, or the public service. Therefore, as to them, the Conference recommends that the graduate work offered be distinctively of original and research character, somewhat as outlined in Resolution No. 4, following a preliminary training in the fundamental principles of the subject, as pursued in the undergraduate course or courses.

As to those of the third group, having less professional interest in international law, a broad general course in the subject is recommended.

#### RESOLUTION No. 8.

*Resolved*, That this Conference directs that a letter be sent to teachers of political science, law, history, political economy and sociology throughout the country, calling attention to and emphasizing the essential and fundamental importance of a knowledge of international law on the part of students in those branches, which letter shall state the opinion of this Conference that every college of liberal arts, every graduate school and every law school, should have or make provision for courses in international law, and urge that all graduate students working in the above-mentioned fields be advised to include this subject in their courses of study.

*Resolved*, That, in accordance with the preceding resolution, there be prepared and sent out with this letter reprints of Senator Root's article entitled,

"The Need of Popular Understanding of International Law," which appeared in Vol. I of the "American Journal of International Law," and of his address delivered at the opening of this Conference.

*Resolved*, That the Recording Secretary of the American Society of International Law attend to the drafting, printing and distribution of the above-specified letter and reprints, and that he is hereby authorized, if he sees fit, to send out additional literature therewith.

#### RESOLUTION No. 9.

*Resolved*, That, in recognition of the growing importance of a knowledge of international law to all persons who plan to devote themselves to the administration of justice, and who, through their professional occupation, may contribute largely to the formation of public opinion, and who often will be vested with the highest offices in the State and nation, this Conference earnestly requests all law schools which now offer no instruction in international law to add to their curriculum a thorough course in that subject.

*Resolved, further*, That a copy of this resolution be sent to all law schools in the United States.

#### RESOLUTION No. 10.

*Resolved*, That the Conference hereby calls the attention of the State bar examiners and of the bodies whose duty it is to prescribe the subjects of examination, to the importance of requiring some knowledge of the elements of international law in examinations for admission to the bar, and urges them to make international law one of the prescribed subjects.

#### RESOLUTION No. 11.

*Resolved*, That the Conference hereby requests the American Bar Association to take appropriate action toward including international law among the subjects taught in law schools and required for admission to the bar.

#### RESOLUTION No. 12.

*Resolved*, That the Conference hereby adopts the following recommendations:

(a) That it is desirable, upon the initiative of institutions where instruction in international law is lacking, to take steps toward providing such instruction by visiting professors or lecturers, this instruction to be given in courses, and not in single lectures, upon substantive principles, not upon popular questions of momentary interest, and in a scientific spirit, not in the interest of any propaganda.

(b) That members of the American Society of International Law, qualified by professional training, be invited by the Executive Council or the Executive Committee of the Society to give such courses, and that provision be made, through the establishment of lectureships or otherwise, to bear the necessary expenses of the undertaking.

(c) That the Standing Committee on the Study and Teaching of International Law and Related Subjects of the American Society of International Law,

the appointment of which was recommended in Resolution No. 1, be requested to ascertain what institutions are in need of additional instruction in international law, and endeavor to find means of affording such assistance as may be necessary to the teaching staff of the said institutions, or of supplying this additional instruction by lecturers chosen by the said committee and approved by the Executive Council or Executive Committee.

(d) That steps be taken to bring to the attention of every college at present not offering instruction in international law, the importance of this subject, and the readiness of the American Society of International Law, through its Standing Committee on the Study and Teaching of International Law and Related Subjects, to co-operate with such institutions in introducing or stimulating instruction.

#### RESOLUTION No. 13.

*Resolved*, That this Conference hereby requests and recommends that universities having summer schools offer summer courses in international law.

*Resolved, further*, That the American Society of International Law, through its Standing Committee on the Study and Teaching of International Law and Related Subjects, is hereby requested to endeavor to stimulate a demand for courses in international law in summer schools.

#### RESOLUTION No. 14.

*Resolved*, That the Conference recommends the establishment and encouragement in collegiate institutions of specialized courses in preparation for the diplomatic and consular services.

#### RESOLUTION No. 15.

*Resolved*, That the Conference recommends that the study of international law be required in specialized courses in preparation for business.

#### RESOLUTION No. 16.

*Resolved*, That a Committee of Revision, consisting of ten members, of which Mr. James Brown Scott shall be chairman ex officio, be appointed by the Chair for the revision in matters of form of the various resolutions and recommendations made to this Conference by the different committees and sub-committees, and adopted by it, the said Committee of Revision to send a copy of the said resolutions and recommendations to every law school, college and university in the United States and to the American Society of International Law, through its Executive Council or Executive Committee, for such action as will serve to effectuate the recommendations of the Conference.

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"Over the Ice with Stefansson" ("Harper's Magazine," April), is the title of an illustrated account of Burt M. McConnell, the meteorologist of the Canadian Arctic Expedition led by the explorer Vilhjarlmur Stefansson. Mr. McConnell believes that Stefansson, though missing for a year, is still alive, hoping and waiting for rescue.

# The Working Museum of History Again

## How I Collected the Material for My Museum

HARRIET SHEAP, HARMON, ILLINOIS.

[The practicability of a "working museum" of history, as described in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE of March, 1914, is concretely illustrated in the following article. The author is one of my own pupils who obtained her impulse from experience with the workings of our normal museum of history. She lives in the country and teaches in a small village school, and has few exceptional advantages except intelligent enthusiasm. Her article is submitted in the hope that many may follow her example to the extent of their possibilities.—EDWARD CARLTON PAGE, Northern Illinois State Normal School, DeKalb, Illinois.]

My home is on a farm that has been owned by our family ever since, as prairie land, it was purchased from the United States Government. My people came to this home in prairie schooners or "around the lakes" from western New York, New Hampshire and Vermont about 1840. They apparently had been used to many of the better modes of living of farmer folk in those days, and were unwilling to adapt themselves to many of the makeshift contrivances used by their less caring neighbors in the new west. They also were gifted with a generous share of Yankee frugality so that nothing of any possible use was ever thrown away. Because of these two facts I became the fortunate inheritor of a rich field from which to build an historical museum.

The purpose of my museum, first of all, is to tell the story by means of objects, of our home farm and community, from its earliest acquisition by white men up to my own childhood. With this in mind I had only to search the sheds, granary, old house which gave place to my present home, and the garrets for the material I wanted. I made for myself the following rule before I began: I will take to the museum only those things that are serving no useful or ornamental purpose about the place at the time I find them. When things cease to be useful, they may be relegated to my museum.

First, I cleaned the walls, floor and window of an unused room of an old house. With a perfectly, bare, clean room before me I began to enumerate in my mind the desirable material for such purpose that I had seen about the place and heard stories about since my childhood. Then I began to collect it. Everything must be dusted or carefully cleaned before taking its place in the museum, for the shades of those starchy great-grandmothers would surely haunt the granddaughter who let their precious household treasures, undusted and unpolished, be displayed "before company." From the loft of my grandfather's house I brought the big wooden cradle that was made by my great-greatuncle for my aunt and her brother and sisters. I found the fire tongs there too, brought from New York state, and used at

the hearth of my great-grandfather when he lived in his loghouse—the first house built on the farm. I found iron candle sticks, used by my grandfather, in father's tool house. In the shed was an ox-yoke used by grandfather in breaking prairies. Another great grandmother's framed wax flowers were found in a deserted storeroom. There was also a brass preserving kettle and an apple butter stirrer in the same house. I found a butcher knife more than seventy years old in the kitchen knife drawer. There was a hair-cloth davenport of the 1860 days in the furnace room. It took considerable puffing and pulling to get this out of the cellar and up a narrow winding stair to the museum. I enlisted the help of a twelve-year old boy who was immensely interested in everything that went into the museum. For the rest I got the help of my grown up sister. My mother and father, too, became interested and often brought me little articles from out of the way corners, telling me at the same time the story that went with the piece, and adding, "This ought to be put in the museum." One rainy afternoon my sister and I spent a long time in the garret searching through old trunks for family treasures, old jewelry and books. The collection we found, we took to our mother, and then and there asked for the story that went with it. At first I wanted my museum to be only a "family museum"—that is, containing only things connected with the family history. I showed it to and explained it to all the aunts, uncles and cousins who visited us or whom I visited, and they began to contribute things that had belonged to my grandparents or were associated with the farm. Friends of the family who heard of it or saw it offered to contribute articles of interest such as stone arrow heads and big glass headed nails for hanging pictures.

Every article is labeled with the dates of its use, its name and the name of the person who owned, used, or wore it. Thus the celluloid bridle rosettes used on grandfather's driving team are labeled "Bridle Rosettes, 1868-1882. Worn by Frank and Colnel, the A. J. Nichols driving team."

Though my museum is yet quite young, I have in mind several uses for it. First, it is a long needed place in our house to store family treasures that just cannot be condemned to the annual house cleaning bon-fire. I see it in the future as a valuable collection of illustrative material to use in teaching history. It is to be a place to which I can invite the local schools with their teachers each year to get acquainted with the long ago. It is to be a place to which I can take my history-loving, small boy friends and satisfy some of the curiosity. Then the good it has done me, in uplifting sentiment, exercise, activity, research and ultimate satisfaction I should not care to miss.

## Making High School History Teaching Definite: The Outbreak of the French Revolution

BY D. C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

### THE PROBLEM OF DEFINITENESS.

Teachers will probably differ in opinion as to the particular points which should be emphasized in discussing the French Revolution, but all will agree as to the stress to be laid upon certain aspects of the movement. It ought to be possible to find some common ground where all teaching of the subject should meet. This is undoubtedly the great problem in the teaching of any period of history, to mark off and clearly delimit this area. More important, still, is the necessity of making clear to the student the work to be done in preparation for the classroom. This is also a part of the problem of making our teaching definite. We may agree with Miss Salmon's thesis, which she maintained at a meeting of the Middle States and Maryland Association a few years ago, that there is a decided advantage in the vagueness and indefiniteness characteristic of our subject, but the task to be performed by the student, should be clear-cut and well-defined. This result can be best attained by resorting to the so-called problem method in our teaching. There would seem to be a decided tendency in this direction as evidenced by the appearance of books like Keatinge, Duncalf and Krey, and the recent volume by W. J. R. Gibbs.<sup>1</sup> There is a certain mass of detail which the student must sift for himself, and upon which the recitation must be based. It is not enough, however, that he be assigned this mass without certain well defined rules to guide him in analyzing and preparing the same. It is also highly desirable that he should actually live these experiences if he is really to profit by his study of the subject. The problems which have been suggested to illustrate these points have been made very simple in character, and are based upon the outline of the period which appeared in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for March, 1913. No elaborate apparatus is required. It is assumed that the equipment of the school may be limited.

### THE DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF THE REVOLUTION ILLUSTRATED.

Those aspects of the French Revolution which demand attention would be its social, economic and political phases. If the class is about to begin the study of the French Revolution let the teacher take such works as Mathews, Johnston and Belloc,<sup>2</sup> and as he reads the chapter headings in each to the class, let him question them as to what kind of a movement

the author is describing. Each of these men apparently stresses a different aspect of the Revolution, and the student is consequently brought face to face with the question, "Which of these authors has the correct point of view?" If the French Revolution can be interpreted either as a social, an economic, or a political upheaval, let these words be carefully defined and understood. The exercise suggested for the class would be for its members to collate the causes of the Revolution mentioned in the particular text-book in use under these headings, and upon the basis of the resulting analysis come to the classroom prepared to express an opinion as to whether the movement was essentially political, economic or social in its origin. Two results should follow: (1) The student will see that some of the causes often have a dual aspect, *e.g.*, feudal survivals, which are as important on the social as on the economic side. (2) He will recognize the fact that although the primary cause may seem to be but one of the three conditions named, the other conditions were closely intertwined with the paramount issue. By the solution of this problem he is prepared, as the movement progresses, to look for certain changes along these lines, and after the period has been covered, he may possibly carry away as the result of his study a clearer impression of what the revolution meant in the long run to the people of France and to all Europe.

### PROBLEMS SUGGESTED BY THE FINANCIAL CRISIS.

The second group of problems hinges upon the crisis which Louis XVI faced upon his accession to the throne, and his attempts to meet it. An excellent opportunity is presented here for comparisons and contrasts, and an exercise of judgment. Let the efforts of these ministers to meet the crisis be assigned as a single exercise. Let Turgot, Necker and Calonne be tested as to their fitness for the task in hand; as to their diagnoses of the situation; and as to the remedies which they proposed. These results may be submitted in tabular form under such headings as: name of the reformer; preparation; reforms proposed; methods used or to be used; results accomplished. This form is likely to give each member of the class the material needed for the discussion of the classroom. Incidentally it might be added that the teacher may have to labor long and earnestly to secure good analyses even in cases where full directions are given. The recitation period may be spent in discussing whether these men fully realized the problems involved in their tasks; whether they met them in a broad statesmanlike fashion; and whether, individually or collectively, they could have averted the Revolution, had they been given a free hand. The discussion may relate itself closely to the preceding lessons upon the causes of the Revolution by pointing

<sup>1</sup> Keatinge, M. A., "Studies in the Teaching of History;" Duncalf, F., and Krey, A. C., "Parallel Source Problems in Mediaeval History;" Gibbs, W. J. R., "Exercises and Problems in English History, 1485-1820."

<sup>2</sup> Mathews, S., "The French Revolution: A Sketch;" Johnston, R. M., "The French Revolution: A Short History;" Belloc, H., "French Revolution."

out how one reformer looked upon the problem presented as essentially economic in character, another perhaps recognized the social basis of the difficulties presented, and so on through the list.

#### THE MEETING OF THE STATES GENERAL.

A problem closely related to those already described would be to discuss the question as to whether a meeting of the States General was needed and what its final summons really meant. At this point it should prove an interesting and instructive exercise, following that upon the work of the ministers, to assign to the class the problem of tracing the movement which led up to the summoning of the States General, in order that they may realize the significance of the meeting of the three orders on May 4, 1789. The discussion of the classroom should center about the meaning of this step. Had the Revolution really begun? The instructor should call to mind the various efforts already put forth—all emanating from the King and all put into execution or checkmated as the result of his absolute power—and the final failure of each, leaving one course open, and that a virtual confession of his inability to resolve the situation. This meant nothing short of the abandonment of his divine right pretensions and of his position as absolute master of the situation.

#### WRITING EDITORIALS.

A realistic touch may be given to these events by asking the class to cast the discussion of the classroom in editorial form as a part or all of the assignment for the next lesson. As this particular form of problem must be well understood in order to secure good results, it might be well to prepare for it by devoting a lesson period to newspaper editorials.

The French Revolution was prolific of journalistic writers, and while they did not write as the newspaper man of the present day, our purpose is served if we take modern journalism as our medium of expression in portraying the attitude of the men of the time. The problem is outlined as follows: "We are preparing to write an editorial on the summoning of the States General. We are to imagine that we are connected with the staff of some reputable paper, and that either the summons has just gone forth or that the States General has met to-day for the first time in 175 years. To get an idea of the form which this comment should take each student should bring into class a good editorial with possibly the news item on which it is based." If it is impossible to bring both, the editorial alone will serve the purpose, as it can be brought out in the course of the discussion that each editorial is a series of comments upon some event or events of moment, which have recently stirred the country or community. The bias of the paper and the clientele to which it is addressed, can be brought out in discussing the editorials submitted. In cases where the work in history is paralleled by clippings and news items from the daily press, an additional interest is given to this phase of the work by a discussion of what constitutes an editorial. What are its essential characteristics? Encouragement can be

given students to read the editorial page, perhaps hitherto neglected. If they but realize some of the spicy bits of writing appearing there, they will be prompted to give editorial comment more time and attention.

Assuming then, that our students know what an editorial write-up involves, they are assigned as an exercise the writing of an editorial upon the meeting of the States General. They are told that they are at liberty to use this or any other heading which seems to them to fit the treatment of the subject which they contemplate. They are to imagine themselves passing through these stirring times and commenting upon them as interested observers of what was taking place. If it seems wise not to devote two recitations to the problem of preparing the editorial, each student may be asked to bring a newspaper editorial to class, and be prepared to write his own editorial in the classroom on the model which he has clipped from the paper. As later phases of the Revolution lend themselves readily to this form of exercise, the time spent on the general subject of editorial writing may prove to be wisely and economically used.

#### SPECIMENS OF WORK.

The results possible in an average class, most of them in the second year of the high school course, can be judged by the following editorials. The reaction of many of these events upon the mind of the student is clearly illustrated by these sample exercises. They are all written by boys. No. V is the work of a very mature student.

##### I.

#### LE SOUFFRANT GENS.

People of France, awake! Open your eyes and see what you are and what you have endured. You have suffered, starved and died in poorest poverty while the king reveled in riches amongst his court. Now that he has taken our last drop of money away without our permission and against our will he wants to reform. I said reform, but it isn't. He calls us together to devise some new schemes of wringing money from us, but he goes too far. Our brothers in the Estates General have already shown their teeth and the king is afraid. Rise up, stand by them, and shout, "Down with the Privileged." Brothers, we are in a crisis. If the honorable, the privileged, the noble and the righteous succeed, we, the poor scum, their slaves, shall remain so and be cowed forever. But we have suffered too far. Better death and no king than a bad one and disgrace. We want our rights, and we shall have them even if we shake the very foundations of the world to get them. But friends, be patient, to-morrow will be the issue. Encourage your brethren who are fighting for your rights, our rights, yes, the people's rights, and they will not succumb to injustice. Make the noble and the honorable succumb with the vile breath of the people. We are nothing in their eyes but vile slaves, but soon they will be less than that in ours. Now, friends, remember! Either our rights or their downfall. We will arouse the timid, open the eyes of the sleeping ones, and twenty-five million slaves will become free and three hundred thousand honorable wasters will be bereft of vile slaves. Poor souls, they will have to work and pay for their pleasures and amusements and we will have ours with the money with which we paid for theirs. Let this be our motto, "Equality, Freedom, and Justice forever and ever."

## II.

## THE CALLING OF THE THIRD ESTATE BEGINS A SOCIAL REVOLUTION IN FRANCE.

On February 7, 1302, the Estates General was formed by the people of France in order to originate some human body to represent them in the French Government. But since that time these Estates have not even been called once by the ancestors of our present King Louis. The French people were not given the privilege to question the laws made by their tyrannical kings or even to fix and register the taxes which they themselves paid, but were used to uphold the extravagance and merry-making of King Louis and his court. Not one franc of this vast amount of taxes was spent to better the conditions of the French peasant, who really paid the taxes, but got nothing in return for it. But these conditions shall prevail no more. No more shall the people of France be downtrodden by the despotic rule of the Bourbon kings, no more shall these kings register taxes at will without the people's consent.

The French people have now a foothold on the French government; but the time will come when there will be no kings; when liberty and equality shall prevail. The royal part of our government is fast slipping, and may the future bring a replacement of this royal government by the more efficient and reliable government by the people.

Yesterday our present king called together the Third Estate to relieve him of his financial distress. And may the Estates General advance until it controls the French government.

And after that time will France drop its baseness, degradedness and poverty, and blossom out as the leading country of our universe.

## III.

## EDITORIAL.

## "Le Petit Journal."

In view of the present uproar, as to the Third Estate convening together with the Nobility and the Clergy, we think it would be well to go back into the distant history of our much-talked-of States General.

In 1302, when Philip the Fair held sway over our land, he called a session of the States General. It met with favor, and the next year, 1303, it was again summoned. It was not called again until 1308. It has since been the custom of our rulers, when in distress, to fall back upon this ancient custom.

The States General was again summoned, 1614-15, by Louis XIII, but the different estates did not agree with each other, and public opinion caused its being banished.

Three days ago, May 4, we all beheld the brilliant procession in which the 550 deputies of the Third Estate led the nobility and clergy. Now all is uproar. The Third Estate seems to be determined to overcome all obstacles in its fight for public freedom. What would we not give, to be able to see through the mist before us, into the coming years, and be able to behold a France where harmony flourished and peace reigned supreme.

## IV.

## SUMMONING THE ESTATES GENERAL.

The King has at last summoned the Estates General together again after an absence of over 150 years. The cause must be that he wants some more of the peasants' money, which he can get in no other way, to keep up his worthless and luxurious court, but it is a certainty that the King had no thoughts of the welfare of his people when he issued the summons.

What will come out of the meeting is hard to foretell, but it is almost a fact that the Third Estate will not come away with any new beneficial laws in their hands, as long as the lords and clergy have the odd vote.

Nevertheless, the proceedings of the body will be eagerly watched by the entire nation.

## V.

May 6, 1789.

His majesty's speech at the opening of the first meeting of the Estates General, enjoining the deputies against any innovation, may seem to many to have various meanings. We cannot help asking: If his majesty so fears "innovation," why has he himself introduced the first innovation by summoning the Estates General? The Third Estate armed as they are with the support of a large portion of the population, will not be satisfied to carry out the wishes of the ministers and then submit to being dismissed.

It is hard to foretell the future, but we fear that Aladdin, our king, has let the evil genie out of the vessel in which he had been confined for one hundred and seventy-five years and that this genie will not be inveigled back into the vessel again.

We are reminded with dread that Philip Augustus is dead, and the reins are in weak hands and the road as rough and the way not clear.

## Periodical Literature

BY MARY W. WILLIAMS, PH.D., EDITOR.

"Poland's Story," by Judson C. Welliver, is an illustrated bird's-eye view of Poland's past history, appearing in the "Century" for May.

The April number of the "National Geographic Magazine" contains the following articles: "Austro-Italian Mountain Frontiers," by Florence Craig Albrecht; "Bulgaria and Its Women," by Hester Donaldson Jenkins, and "The Kingdom of Serbia," by William Joseph Showalter.

"John Hay as Secretary of State," from his unpublished letters, compiled and edited by William Roscoe Thayer, appears in "Harper's Magazine" for May. The various subjects discussed by the letters include the Alaskan boundary question, the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, the Boer War, and the Boxer trouble.

"Education" for May publishes an article on "The Value of History," by Ransom A. Mackie, giving the following reasons for the pursuit of historical study: (1) acquisition of knowledge; (2) training in sound methods of study; (3) training in the use of books; (4) development of character; (5) development of interest in research and investigation; (6) for the purpose of gaining an understanding of the present.

The "Geographical Journal" for April contains two papers of importance: "The Political Geography of Africa Before and After the War," by Sir Harry H. Johnston, and "European Influence in the Pacific, 1513-1914," by Sir Everard I. Thurn. Both papers are accompanied by colored maps.

"An Experiment in Dramatization" ("School Review," April), by Maud Hamilton, of the Wisconsin High School

of the University of Wisconsin, is a description of the writing and staging, by the high-school history class, of a play based upon "Bacon's Rebellion," and entitled "A Rebel of Olde Virginia." The experiment was a success because (1) the play was created by the pupils who enjoyed the work; (2) it made the period real and vital to them; (3) it gave them an idea of reality to carry into all history.

In "Die Woche" for March 27 is an article on "Belgium Under German Control," describing the political and military problems facing the German rulers of Belgium. The author, Walter Bloem, who writes for German readers, advances the interesting opinion that it will require an "unlimited amount of tact, patience and goodwill" on the part of German officials in order to gain the confidence of the Belgians.

"French Memories of Eighteenth Century America: Education, Colleges and Newspapers" ("Scribner's," May) is an account by Charles H. Sherrill, illustrated from contemporary paintings and engravings. The data has been gleaned from the writings of French soldiers and travelers, most of whom gave favorable reports; and some even expressed surprise at American learning and American educational opportunities.

The "Unpopular Review" for April-June presents a consideration of "The Cause of Revolution in Mexico" by a man who has spent some time in Mexico. The revolutions, he points out, are caused by land monopoly, which means also a monopoly of freedom. However, the only thing for the United States to do is "simply to watch and wait. It is weary work, but 'waiting is the finest of the fine arts.' Some day some stout and resolute person will rise from this southern welter and will put the Mexican people back upon the lands of Mexico, and then—and not till then—there will be abiding peace in the great country."

The "North American Review" for May includes an interesting editorial on "The Government and the War: a Reply to Mr. Roosevelt." In the light of international law and the Hague agreements, the writer considers the attack upon the Wilson administration for not uttering a protest against the action of German military forces (1) in invading Belgium; (2) in dropping bombs from aircraft; (3) in destroying historic monuments; (4) in bombarding seacoast towns; (5) in using dum-dum bullets; (6) in planting contact mines in the high seas. As a result of his consideration of the question, the editor states that no justification exists for a national protest of any of the grounds mentioned.

"It will help to a better understanding of some of the issues which must be settled at the peace—and to know what it is fighting for is one of Europe's great needs just now—if America makes it plain that she must in the end stand for the neutralization of the sea and the more thorough internationalization of sea law; that that is one of the stones which she is to contribute to the foundations of a real society of nations. That will mean for England in some measure the recasting of her whole national policy, a relaying in some measure of the foundations of her national security. This only makes it the more important that she should not come to the task unprepared for any real understanding of America's position." (Norman Angell, "America and the Neutralization of the Sea," in "North American Review," May.)

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

CORWIN, EDWARD S. *The Doctrine of Judicial Review: Its Legal and Historical Basis and Other Essays.* Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1914. Pp. vii, 177. \$1.25.

The five essays in this slender volume are valuable and instructive contributions in the field of constitutional law and history. The two most significant studies have to do with the federal courts. In recent years there has appeared a wealth of literature dealing with the subject of judicial review; much of it, however, reflecting the attitude of the apologist, advocate or antagonist. Mr. Corwin stands among the select few, who, avoiding preconceptions, are content to approach the matter in a truly historical spirit. He has admirably described and explained in short compass the origin and development of the general principles, ideas and forces which gave rise to the practice of the courts sitting in judgment on the acts of co-ordinate legislatures. The author shows with considerable legalistic reasoning that the case of *Marbury vs. Madison* offered "no valid occasion" for the enunciation of the doctrine of judicial review, holding that the decision has the earmarks of a "deliberate partisan coup." Thirteen pages of notes appended to this essay form a valuable and comprehensive critical commentary on the sources of the subject. The paper on the *Dred Scott* decision presents a wealth of evidence to prove that the Supreme Court is not guilty of the oft-repeated charges that its decision was obiter dictum or that the majority opinions were based on Calhounist theories. Neither of the accusations, brought by a contemporary expression of hostility, which historians have been wont to reflect and perpetuate, stands the test of precedent. This by no means indicates that the author clears the court of specious reasoning or lose regard for precedent and history. He holds that while the "decision cannot be with accuracy, written down as usurpation, it can and must be written down as a gross abuse of trust."

The essay on "We, the People," reaches the conclusion by copious quotations from the sources "that in 1787 the terms 'People of the States' and 'People of the United States' were not antagonistic terms," and that the Calhounist doctrines of state intervention and secession have neither constitutional nor historical justification. It is hoped that the convincing logic and facts set forth in the study on the Pelatiah Webster myth will permanently consign to the limbo of trifles the efforts to convince us that Webster was the architect of the federal constitution. In the final essay the author claims for the federal government complete and unlimited power in treaty-making, and urges the exercise of this power in a comprehensive manner in order to bring the United States within the increasing number of international agreements providing for social betterment.

W. F. ROOT.

The University of Wisconsin.

PENNYPACKER, SAMUEL WHITAKER. *Pennsylvania—the Keystone.* Philadelphia: Christopher Sower Co., 1914. Pp. xxix, 289. 75 cents.

This little volume by the former Governor of the Commonwealth of which he writes, is suitable as a high school text on state history. Many of the chapters, like those on "Slavery," "Education," "Iron and Coal," will make satisfactory assigned reading outside the class in connection with some other class text. About one-half of the text is

devoted to the presentation of the material and intellectual development of the state, a most commendable feature. Numerous photographic reprints of valuable sources and other illustrations illumine the pages. The author shows a full appreciation of the value of sources, though no footnotes or formal bibliography is included.

The first fifty pages are much more carefully written than the remainder. The narrative part is rather heavy in detail, and the author succeeds no better than other writers of state histories in connecting the history of the state with that of the nation. A chapter on "Romance," desirable enough, should have been better guarded with due authentication or the reader warned as to its value as history.

It is interesting to note that the writer of the book approves of President Buchanan's attitude toward secession, December, 1860, to March, 1861, but makes very slight mention of Gallatin. The first few chapters will dispel the over-emphasis we are inclined to place on the influence of the Quakers in Pennsylvania. The little work is almost entirely free from the slightest trace of partisanship. Students anywhere may with profit read most of the chapters.

H. M. HENRY.

Emory and Henry College, Virginia.

WILLIAMS, JOHN SHARP. *Thomas Jefferson: His Permanent Influence on American Institutions*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1913. Pp. xiii, 330. \$1.50.

A sketch of the founder of the Democratic party by one of the leading Democrats of the day could not fail to be of interest, and when the author is a westerner, a former leader of his party in the House, and now a Senator—in other words, one who knows American life and American governmental institutions—the work makes a peculiar appeal.

In interpreting Jefferson's democracy and the democracy of America, Mr. Williams commences promisingly: "First, he was a Virginian and a planter. Secondly, he was a frontiersman, because . . . during the formative period of Thomas Jefferson's life, his environment was a frontier environment." (Page 5.) Unfortunately, this note is not sustained, and discerning praise quickly degenerates into fulsome eulogy. So long as the book is read, and perhaps longer, one sentence is likely to be quoted from it. When Jefferson's much discussed religious views are under consideration, the author is able to say: "I have sometimes thought that he was more nearly a Christian in his belief than any man who has lived since Christ." (Page 257.) Eulogy can go no further unless it be to describe the attributes of deity. This is an extreme instance, and yet it is typical of the work as a whole.

It explains much to know that we have here simply in book form the lectures delivered at Columbia University on the Blumenthal Foundation in 1913, and that the author apologizes in his preface for the great haste and great pressure under which the lectures were written and delivered, namely, during and after the campaign of 1912.

The subject was an assigned one, and was specifically limited to Jefferson's permanent influence on American institutions. The subject reveals the interest which the present-day student of history and politics is taking in Jefferson through appreciation of the extent to which he contributed to our institutions. The treatment of the subject in this instance, however, is by a political orator, eulogistic to an extreme, and offering to the student practically nothing that is new except several stimulating suggestions.

MAX FARRAND.

Yale University.

SHEPHERD, WM. R. *Latin America*. (Home University Library Series.) New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1914. Pp. viii, 256. 50 cents.

Properly speaking, this is not a history of Latin America, though it contains much of interest and value to a student of the history of Latin America. Indeed, it lays no claim to being history, as is easily seen by a glance at the table of contents. The book is divided into Part I, the Colonies, and Part II, the Republics. The relative emphasis on the colonial and national periods is indicated by the fact that only fifty-nine pages are devoted to the former, and one hundred and eighty-five to the latter.

Part I begins with a very brief but suggestive general historical survey of the period of conquest and colonization under the heading, the expansion of Spain and Portugal. This is followed by a chapter on each of the following subjects: Government, social organization, economic conditions, the church, and intellectual and artistic status. While in the main Professor Shepherd discusses only well known facts, yet he continually injects illuminating comments, intended to correct general misconceptions concerning Spanish and Portuguese colonial policy, colonial institutions, and colonial history. He follows the recent tendency of fair-minded students of Spanish colonization in placing less emphasis on the evils and more on the good points in the system, and showing that most of the evils existed because of the inefficiency and venality of the lesser officials rather than because of bad laws or bad intentions on the part of the Spanish sovereigns or their viceroys and other high officials.

The really historical portion of Part II is chiefly comprised in the first two chapters entitled, independence, and national development, respectively. A chapter each is then devoted to a study of international relations, geography and resources, social characteristics, political and financial situation, industry, commerce, transportation, education, public charity and social service, science, journalism, literature, and fine arts. In this portion of his book, as well as in the portion dealing with Spain's relations to her colonies, Professor Shepherd's attitude is charitable, but not improperly flattering. He is not blind to faults or imperfections in the political, social, and economic institutions of these countries. And he admits that they have not always dealt wisely with the problems that have presented themselves for solution. But he says: "A study of these problems, moreover, leaves the conviction that most of what ought to be condemned has sprung from exceptional causes." In his chapter on geography, especially, he presents many startling and convincing arguments to prove the greatness of the resources of these undeveloped countries, and the probable magnitude of their future influence on the economic, industrial and commercial, as well as political affairs of the world. A very helpful brief list of books in the appendix introduces the reader to some of the most useful literature in English on the subject.

The book contains few serious errors in its statement of facts. It is unfortunate that one of these few is in the first sentence of the first chapter. The literary style of the book is always easy and pleasing. In its mechanical appearance it has the faults and the merits of the series to which it belongs. As the successive volumes come from the press one never ceases to wonder how the publishers can furnish so much at so small a cost.

University of Texas.

WILLIAM R. MANNING.

WELLS, H. G. *Social Forces in England and America*. New York: Harper Brothers, 1914. Pp. 415. \$2.00.

This book, by the well-known English writer and critic, is not, as the title would seem to suggest, an orderly discussion of the various forces contributing to the present-day development of our society. It is rather a heterogeneous collection of articles on a number of subjects of social interest, but not very closely related to each other.

The first four chapters can be readily omitted by the general reader, since they neither introduce the real subject matter of the book nor serve to enlighten him as to the plan of the discussion. The same may be said of the last four chapters.

In the chapter on "The Labor Unrest," the reader begins to grasp fully the author's thought expressed in terse forceful language and continues interested, though he finds himself swept on from topic to topic, seeing between them little or no logical connection or coherence. In the main, the author lives up to his statement, "My business in these pages has been not prescription, but diagnosis." There is an almost total lack of practical suggestion as to the feasibility of the social reforms which he deems desirable.

But to mention some of these reforms: he would have a longer average period of educational training for the laborer, a shorter and more intensive working period, with a longer one than at present for subsequent leisure to be enlivened by an old-age pension. He has misgivings as to the progress of the increase of population in England and America, and would provide an "endowment for the home" by a suitable pension for dependent mothers. He believes in the military preparedness of England, but fears that her military equipment is not modern in every particular, and under no circumstances does he approve of conscription. He finds the teachers of the kingdom commonplace machines, with scarcely an original idea. He believes the medical profession should be subsidized to facilitate research for the benefit of society. He combats the idea that the novel is for leisure merely, but thinks of it as a tremendous vehicle for the propagation of social and religious reform. He advocates marriage and divorce reform, with a liberal interpretation of the marriage contract. He desires a preferential voting system which scarcely members of Parliament would understand, to say nothing of being willing to use. We are naturally interested in his long article on America, which is by far the most conservative in tone, and really the best. He finds in this western wild a lack of sufficient increase of population, which he thinks will soon not be adequately supplied by immigration. He thinks of the United States as the home of a classless people, though he hastens to show that there is rapidly growing up a class based on wealth, and takes a rather hopeful view of the prospects of the leadership of this class. His estimate of our literature is somewhat discouraging, and he gives too large a place to the literary importance of Mr. Arthur Brisbane and the newspaper which he represents, or rather the reading public which finds that journal satisfactory reading. He underestimates the importance in our political life of the federal government.

On the whole, the book is stimulating and wholesome.

H. M. HENRY.

Emory and Henry College, Virginia.

MIEROW, CHARLES CHRISTOPHER. *The Gothic History of Jordanes*. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1915. Pp. 188. \$1.75.

In 1908 Mr. Mierow published as his doctoral dissertation a translation of the Gothic history of Jordanes. The

translation now appears in book form, with some unimportant changes, with the addition of an introduction and a valuable commentary in explanation of the text. The work is exceedingly well done throughout. The introduction contains a discussion of the life of Jordanes and the authorities which he used, a useful chronological table and a genealogical chart of the Amal kings. In his treatment of the ecclesiastical position of Jordanes and the difficult questions relating to the sources which form the ultimate basis of Jordanes's work, the author is clear and rational.

The reviewer advises all teachers of ancient and medieval history to read the refreshing and naive Jordanes in Mr. Mierow's trustworthy translation. It is, by the way, the only English rendition that we have. All colleges which pretend to do adequate historical teaching would do well to have this source, which is very important for the period from the fourth to the sixth, in reach of their students. The book is, perhaps, too expensive for most high-school libraries, but Jordanes is not beyond the grasp of high-school pupils. The original edition of Mr. Mierow's translation of Jordanes, the Princeton dissertation, mentioned above, was advertised at 50 cents. Perhaps some copies of this are still available for high-school libraries which cannot afford the completed work.

W. L. WESTERMANN.

The University of Wisconsin.

ROGERS, J. D. *Outlines of Modern History*. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press, 1913. Pp. 215. 90 cents.

This is a sketch of European and colonial history from 1492 to the Balkan Wars of 1913. It is written in a pleasing manner, with careful schoolmasterly explanations (especially in the earlier pages) for the small boy who may have to read it. The text proper covers 195 pages, of which the last 48 are devoted to Europe since the Congress of Vienna. The history is almost exclusively political, and there are no maps, save very general ones on the inside covers. The book contains much detail, for which the beginner has no background. The "philosophy" of the book is eminently respectable and suited to the youth of democratic Britain. The mature student who reads it will find it suggestive now and then; the beginner can grind up many forgettable facts from it; but American youth are not accustomed to that questionable sort of exercise. And there you are.

G. C. SELLERY.

University of Wisconsin.

ALLEN, P. S. *The Age of Erasmus*. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press, 1914. Pp. 303. \$2.00.

This is a series of discursive lectures, in the nature of learned gossip, by the erudite Oxford student of Erasmus. "The aim of these lectures is not so much to draw the outlines of the Renaissance in the North as to present sketches of the world through which Erasmus passed, and to view it as it appeared to him and to some of his contemporaries, famous or obscure . . ." (p. 8).

The book is not for the beginner. If one is to appreciate learned or any other sort of gossip, one should know something of the persons who are talked about, and Mr. Allen is much interested in persons. Chapter V is entitled "Erasmus's Life-Work," and one of its most entertaining bits is the letter John Amorbach, the printer, wrote to his rather spendthrift son at Paris. The letter might properly have been worked into Chapter IV, which is called "Universities." This chapter has a useful list of subjects used for disputation at Louvain, and a good brief of an argument on one of them. Chapter IX is entitled "Pilgrimages," and its *pièce de résistance* is an instructive account of the hardships endured by pilgrims to the Holy Land (which Erasmus never visited).

The student of Humanism will rub his eyes when he reads of a man who went east "just when the fall of Constantinople had turned the tide of Hellenism westward" (p. 10) and "the scholastic philosophy and theology was" (p. 253) will trouble one versed in medieval philosophy.

The priority of Cardinal Ximenes's edition of the Greek Testament (p. 263) should be noted by those who still think latent Protestantism inspired biblical scholarship. The importance of printing in stimulating scholarship is placed in a new light (p. 260). The influence of the Revival of Learning in promoting German racial antagonism against the proud and scornful Italian Humanists, and thus helping to prepare the Germans for a religious revolt, is a suggestive conjecture (pp. 267 ff.).

The book sadly lacks organization, but St. Louis loved *quodlibet*, and why may not we? G. C. SELLERY.

University of Wisconsin.

MACAULAY, T. B. The History of England, from the Accession of James II. With illustrations. Edited by C. H. Firth. Volume V. London: Macmillan & Co., 1914. Pp. xix, 540. \$3.25.

This volume maintains the well-demonstrated excellence of this series. Nearly one-third of its pages are devoted to illustrations, of which seven are full-page plates in color. The first of these, the frontispiece, reproduces two plates of "William and Mary" pottery, whose grotesque portraits of the monarchs resemble but little their originals. Several more satisfactory likenesses of these great personages are presented later—that of Queen Mary reproducing in color Wissin's painting in the National Portrait Gallery and giving clear suggestion of her amiability and the other engaging qualities of personality which secured her the love of the English people. Thomas Osborne, first Duke of Leeds, the prince of bribers and, judging from this full-length portrait, the prince of fops, stands forth resplendent in the many-colored garments that reflect the fashions of his day. Also in color are the fine portraits of the keen-eyed John Locke, the masterful-appearing John Churchill, first Duke of Marlborough, and the astute Sir William Temple, diplomat and author, whom Macaulay tells us Jonathan Swift served as secretary for twenty pounds a year and board. The picture of the author of "Gulliver's Travels" is included among the many portraits in black and white, as are the likenesses of his great French contemporaries, Racine and Bossuet. Besides the many portraits there are many pictures of scenes, such as that in color of the Pass of Glencoe, where the massacre of the MacDonald clan was perpetrated; also that of Old Sarum, from an engraving of 1723, when already "it was a deserted ruin which the traveler feared to enter at night." Battle plans, broadsides, medals and caricatures are other subjects of the illustrations. This volume carries Macaulay's narrative through the assassination plot of 1696.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

The "Contemporary Review" for March contains an article on "Rumors and Historical Science in Time of War," by the historian, A. F. Pollard, which considers various baseless rumors originating during the early months of the present European war—including the report that Russian soldiers had been sent via Archangel and the British Isles to France—and shows how these rumors might have been studied with the object of determining their truth or falsehood.

#### SCHOOL PAGEANT.

The following description of the purpose and value of a school historical pageant is taken from the prefatory note to the Word Book of the Historical Pageant of the founding of New Harmony, Ind., which was presented at that town on June 13, 1914. The Book of Words was prepared by Miss Charity Dye, of Indianapolis.

The school children's historical pageant is a distinct division of pageantry in itself, demanding special considerations of time, preparation, choice of material, and adjustments to the age and development of those taking part. It should be borne in mind that children have no large background of experience, and hence the methods used with adults cannot be used with them. The evolution of the school pageant has been in response to the play spirit along educative lines, and marks a difference between the mere spectacular performance, which is gotten up in haste and dies as soon as it is born, and the one that makes permanent impression of what is valuable to the development of the pupil, and is presented in conformity to the known laws of education. Under the wise management of Mr. Mangrum, the superintendent of the schools, who began five months in advance, the New Harmony pageant soon proved its educational value. It has made community interest and co-operation a living reality; it has telescoped the history of the town and the region in the minds of the children, and taught them of people and events more vividly than could have been otherwise possible; it has united the entire school system of the place by giving every child some active part in preparing for the great historic event of celebrating the founding of the town. The very least ones have been cutting with the scissors the pageant scenes, outlined by the teacher, and making silhouettes; others have been drawing the outlines; some naming the birds of the district; others, the trees; and still others noting the procession of wild flowers, all to show the nature of the region. Older ones are making maps of the town and the topography of the land, or drawing posters, and the prominent buildings of historical note. The higher grades are using the scenes in original composition work of character study and the dramatization of events. Music has been a feature all the way along. Boys have been heard singing "Lo! I Uncover the Land" from the pageant, with happy loud voice. New Harmony is a rural community with only three hundred school children; what has been done there is possible to some degree in every community in the state. The pageant lends itself especially to rural regions wherever there is a school or several schools to unite in a festival for honoring those who have helped to make public education possible. The near approach of the centenary of the Statehood of Indiana in 1916 furnishes the psychological moment that makes it both a privilege and a duty to arouse in every school in the state, a new interest in its own environment or local history, thus leading to a wider interest and conception of historic growth. The work of the historical pageant in the schools of Indiana should begin next September so as to give ample time without interfering with the regular work that must otherwise be done. Richmond, Vincennes, Fort Wayne, LaFayette and many other Indiana cities are especially rich in pageant material, to say nothing of the wealth in this respect in the rural communities on every side.

## Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

### NOTES.

Professor A. H. Lybyer will offer courses in European History at the University of Illinois during the summer school.

Lecture sets and lantern slides upon the European War are now issued in large numbers by Messrs. York & Sons, of London, England. Their series includes not only photographs, but also many reproductions of cartoons, a set of fifty war maps, and a number of war portraits.

Dr. J. Salwyn Schapiro, of the College of the City of New York, has an article in the April "Forum" on the "War of the European Cultures," being a study of the national ideals and cultural contributions of the English, French and German peoples.

Miss Elizabeth Hazelton Haight, Assistant Professor of Latin of Vassar College, has published, through D. C. Heath & Co., a small pamphlet called "Carthage and Hannibal," in which an attempt is made to publish an introduction to Livy's Third Decade. The author would exonerate Hannibal from the charges of cruelty, perfidy, impiety and avarice which are so frequently made against him.

In connection with the Panama-Pacific International Exposition many of the exhibits will show the history and development of processes and accompaniments of civilization. Thus, the progress of transportation will be depicted by models and locomotives of various types, the actual development of the human shoe will also be shown, and another exhibit will show the introduction and development of American education in the Philippine Islands.

New detailed syllabus and assignments for work in course "History One" at the University of Illinois have been received from Professor A. H. Lybyer. These consist of a number of details from similar syllabi prepared in other institutions, the principal feature being a note concerning the work expected of the class for each topic, including sometimes the filling in of outline maps, the construction of chronological tablets and the reading of certain prescribed works.

The first number of "The Catholic Historical Review," dated April, 1915, has appeared. "The Review" is published by the Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C., and is issued quarterly. The first number contains an introductory statement by James Cardinal Gibbons. The Rt. Rev. Thomas J. Shahan, Rector of the University, contributed an explanatory note explaining the spirit of the new "Review." He says, "There is unquestionably a deep and lively interest in history on the part of Catholics, but this interest has so far failed to produce any but desultory and sporadic effort. Much may be accomplished if the zeal and activities of those who are even now engaged in the study of history can be directed into one channel."

The contributed articles include one upon the "Flemish Franciscan Missionaries in North America;" a sketch of the life of the Rev. John Ceslas Fenwick, a hard-working Friar Preacher of Maryland; The First Ecclesiastical Synod of California in 1852, and the relation of Columbus and the Santa Hermandad in 1492. There are miscellaneous notes, extracts from documents, reviews of new books, and other bibliographical material.

The University of California calls special attention to the course in history to be offered during the summer session, from June 21 to July 31, 1915. The series includes courses not only by members of the faculty of the University of California, but also by Professors George Lincoln Burr, Cornell University; Max Farrand, Yale University; Charles H. Haskins, Harvard University; J. Franklin Jameson, Director of the Department of Historical Research, Carnegie Institute of Washington, and Frederick J. Turner, Harvard University.

The courses, as announced, are as follows:

#### American History:

Western American History. Professor Turner.

The Study of American History. Professor Jameson.

American History, 1789 to 1815. Professor Farrand.

#### European History:

The Rise of Nationality in Europe. Professor Stephens.

The Normans in Europe. Professor Haskins.

Europe in the Middle Ages. Professor Burr.

Ancient Imperialism. Assistant Professor Scholz.

English History. Assistant Professor Morris.

American History. Assistant Professor McCormac.

Western American History. Professor Bolton.

American History. Professors Turner, Jameson and Farrand.

European History. Professors Stephens, Haskins and Burr.

The annual report of Dr. J. Franklin Jameson, Director of the Department of Historical Research of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, has appeared. The report shows that the work in European archives has been somewhat interrupted by the war, but that in other respects the work of the department has progressed along the lines previously laid down. Two volumes were published by the department during the preceding year. These include "Guide to the Materials in London Archives for the History of the United States Since 1783," prepared by Dr. Charles O. Paullin and Professor Frederic L. Paxson, together with other helpers. The period covered is that from 1783 to 1860, and in a few cases even to a later date.

The other book is the second volume of Professor Charles M. Andrews's "Guide to the Materials for American History to 1783 in the Public Record Office of Great Britain." This publication completes Prof. Andrews's work, which will become indispensable for all workers in American History in the Record Office. The work on the proposed Atlas of the Historical Geography of the United States has been carried on, and advance has been made toward the preparation for the press of "Letters of Delegates to the Continental Congress" and "Proceedings and debates of Parliament from 1585 to 1783 Relating to America."

The eighth annual meeting of the Mississippi Valley History Teachers' Association was held at New Orleans, April 22 to 24, 1915, upon invitation of the Louisiana Historical Society. There were seven meetings of the Association, at which many topics in connection with the History of the Mississippi Valley were discussed. The papers included a wide range of subjects. Among the more important were the following: W. E. Dunn, University of Texas, "Spanish Reaction Against the French Advance Toward New Mexico;" H. S. Halbert, Alabama Department of Archives and History, "Notes on Tishatala, a Chickasaw Town in Pontotoc County, Mississippi;" C. E. Carter, Miami University, "Beginnings of West Florida;" Miss Elizabeth West, Carnegie Library, San Antonio, Texas, "The Indian Policy of Bernardo de Galvez;" W. H. Siebert, Ohio State University, "Loyalists in West Florida and the Natchez District;" Prof. H. H. Maurer, Sophia Newcomb College, "Foreign Influence in American History

and Politics;" J. W. Townsend, Lexington, Ky., "Horace Holley, Third President of Transylvania University;" Miss Stella Herron, New Orleans, La., "The African Apprentice Bill;" H. L. Griffin, Southwestern Louisiana Industrial Institute, "Early Louisiana Justice;" J. E. Winston, University of Mississippi, "Attitude of the Newspapers of the United States Toward the Texas Revolution;" President I. J. Cox, Mississippi Valley Historical Association, Annual Address, "The Invasion of the Goths and Vandals;" Miss Caroline F. Richardson, Sophie Newcomb College, "A Note on the Organization of the Oldest Schools for Girls in the Mississippi Valley;" J. J. McLoughlin, New Orleans, La., "History of the Black Code;" J. A. James, Northwestern University, "New Orleans and the First Years of the American Revolution;" C. W. Alvord, University of Illinois, "The West in the Treaty of Peace in 1763;" Archer B. Hulbert, Marietta College, "Yankee Shipbuilding on the Ohio Before the Embargo;" G. B. Merrick, Madison, Wis., "Joseph Reynolds and the Diamond Joe Line of Steamers, 1862-1911;" Dunbar Rowland, Mississippi Department of Archives and History, "Some Archive Problems of the Southern States;" W. O. Scroggs, Louisiana State University, "Rural Life in the Lower Mississippi Valley About 1803;" St. George L. Sioussat, Vanderbilt University, "Memphis as a Gateway of the West, a Study in Transportation;" Prof. M. J. White, Tulane University, "Louisiana and the Secession Movement in the Early Fifties."

At the meeting of the Teachers' Section the following papers were presented: W. Beer, Howard Memorial Library, New Orleans, La., "Collections of Historical Material in Louisiana;" J. L. Webster, President of Nebraska Historical Society, "Looking Backward to LaSalle;" Milledge L. Bonham, Louisiana State University, "Recent History: To What Extent to the Exclusion of Other History?;" Alfred D. St. Amant, Louisiana State Normal School, "Guarding Our Future History;" E. C. Page, Northern Illinois State Normal School, "The Museum of History at Work;" Frederick V. Emerson, Louisiana State University, "Some Geographic Influence in Mississippi Valley History."

#### OHIO ASSOCIATION.

The preliminary meeting of the Ohio History Teachers' Association was held in the new library of the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, Friday and Saturday, April 2 and 3, 1915.

Dr. Frank Pierrepont Graves, Dean of the College of Education of the University of Pennsylvania, opened the session on Friday afternoon with an illustrated lecture on "Rise of the American Common School." Professor C. L. Martzoff, Ohio University, Athens, spoke on the "Justification for the Study of Ohio History in Our Schools." Professor Homer C. Hockett, of the American History Department, Ohio State University, opened the discussion of this paper. Others took part.

Miss Alice M. Rower, Cleveland, told of the benefits the teachers would derive through the publication of a History Teachers' Bulletin. Professor Clarence Perkins, Department of European History, Ohio State University, led in the discussion of this topic. At 6 p. m. the members of the Association dined with the Ohio College Association at Ohio Union.

On Saturday morning the Association convened at 9.30. Mr. E. G. Pumphrey, of Dayton, presented a paper on "The Teaching of Citizenship in Our Schools." Professor R. T. Stevenson, of Ohio Wesleyan University, Del., opened the discussion of Mr. Pumphrey's paper. Miss Frances Welsh, Columbus, presented the second paper of the morning on "How to Reach the Pupils in History Teaching." This

paper also elicited some discussion. The last was an address by the President of the Association, Professor W. H. Siebert, Department of European History, Ohio State University. Several items of business were then transacted by the Association. The first was an invitation from the Ohio Valley History Association to participate in a meeting to be held in Columbus in the autumn of 1915. On motion the invitation was accepted. On motion also the chairman was authorized to appoint a committee with power to act to consider the feasibility of preparing a volume of historical material relating to Ohio history. The chairman named Professor H. C. Hockett, Ohio State University; Professor C. L. Martzoff, Ohio University, Athens, and Professor J. E. Bradford, of Miami University. The chairman was authorized also to appoint a Board of Editors for the issuing of the "History Teachers' Bulletin."

#### HISTORY AT THE PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION.

In connection with the Exposition, a "Panama-Pacific Historical Congress" will be held at San Francisco, Berkeley and Palo Alto, from July 19 to July 23, under the auspices of the American Asiatic Association, the Asiatic Institute and the American Historical Association. The first day of the Congress will be devoted to the consideration of the history and interests of the oldest civilization upon the coasts of the Pacific Ocean—that of China; the second day will be devoted to the consideration of the history of the Philippine Islands from the earliest period down to its recent development under the United States. On the third day, topics will be discussed bearing upon the Pacific Northwest and the development of the Spanish-speaking States along the Pacific Ocean. Papers upon westward expansion and the settlement of California will be read on the fourth day, and the conference of teachers of history will be held in the afternoon of this day. The following day the subjects considered will be those growing out of the relations of the Far East, Australasia and Japan with the Pacific Ocean. The last evening session will be devoted to the history of "The Panama Canal and Its Significance in the History of the Pacific Ocean," by Rudolph S. Taussig, secretary of the Panama-Pacific International Exposition.

#### PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION

To all teachers who attend the Panama-Pacific Exposition in San Francisco, Ginn & Company are extending a cordial invitation to visit their exhibit in the Palace of Education. In this exhibit there are displays showing how text-books are made, striking facts about the text-book business, motion pictures, and an interesting collection of early American school books. There is also a rest-room, which has been made attractive with chairs, tables, desks, a fireplace and other furnishings in the New England Colonial style.

Teachers will find this a comfortable place to use as their headquarters at the Exposition grounds. An attendant who is familiar with all the details of the Exposition will be found ready to render any possible services at Ginn & Company's booth and to offer suggestions about seeing the Exposition, which, by the way, covers an area over two miles in length. Each teacher who visits Ginn & Company's exhibit is presented with a facsimile copy of the New England Primer and an attractive souvenir pamphlet printed in two colors, entitled "Quality and Cost."

If you are not yet sure of your San Francisco address, it may be convenient to have your mail sent as follows: Care of Ginn & Company, Panama-Pacific Exposition, Palace of Education, San Francisco.

## MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION

The annual meeting of the History Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland was held at Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, April 16-17, 1915. The program, as announced in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* for April, was carried out. The meeting on Friday afternoon developed into a report of three investigations made upon the change in the method of teaching history in elementary schools, high schools and colleges, presented, respectively, by Mr. E. E. Giltner, Dr. D. C. Knowlton and Professor R. W. Kelsey. The reports furnished a valuable survey of the conditions of history teaching in the Middle States and Maryland for the preceding five years. They showed in general that the conditions of history teaching were improving in the elementary schools, that the position of history in the secondary schools was becoming less sure, and that there was a danger of it being displaced by other subjects under the elective system, and that in the colleges there was an evident strengthening of the work in Modern European History, but aside from this tendency there seemed to be no other marked development.

Professor John M. Vincent, of Johns Hopkins University, presented a paper after dinner upon "The Literary Recreation of the History Teacher," in which he urged every history teacher to pursue investigations upon some history topic where the subject could be studied in his locality, and then turning from precept to example, he gave a few illustrations of the sumptuary legislation in certain of the Rhenish cities.

Another innovation in the program of the Association was that provided for Saturday morning, in which a single topic, "The Causes of the American Revolution," was treated by three persons, Miss Louise J. Hedge, Prof. Philip Dougherty and Prof. Chas. W. Spencer, respectively, from the standpoint of the elementary school, the high school and the college. The exercise showed the difference in method and content in the treatment of a similar subject for the three grades of instruction. The general impression was voiced by the president, Professor Henry Johnson, that many such studies should be made throughout American history in order to determine for the school administrators and the history teacher just what method and what content should be proceeded in each grade of work.

A delightful excursion was taken to Annapolis on Saturday afternoon, where the members visited old St. John's College and the Naval Academy. This trip is in pursuance of a policy which the Association has adopted of taking a historical pilgrimage in connection with each one of its annual meetings. This policy has already permitted the members who attend the meetings to visit a number of historical sites in the territory of the Association.

An examination of applicants for the position of Chief Examiner of the Philadelphia Civil Service Commission will be held on June 12, 1915. Residence in the city is not required, and applicants will not be required to appear at any stated place for the first two parts of the examination—education and experience, and discussion of practical problems. The third part, the oral test, will only be given to those who receive a rating of 70 or over on the first two. Further information can be obtained from Peter Bolger, secretary, Civil Service Commission, City Hall, Philadelphia.

## BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM MARCH 27 TO APRIL 24, 1915.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

## American History.

- Bolton, Ethel S. Shirley uplands and intervals; annals of a bordertown of old Middlesex. Boston: G. E. Littlefield. 394 pp. \$3.75 net.
- D. A. R., Betty Allen Chapter, Northampton, Mass. Early Northampton. Northampton, Mass. [The Author.] 229 pp. \$2.00.
- D. A. R., Minnesota. Old rail-fence corners; the A B C's of Minnesota history. Austin, Minn.: F. H. McCulloch, Pr. 324 pp. \$1.50.
- Darnell, Elias, and others. A journal of the . . . Kentucky volunteers and regulars in the years 1812-13 [etc.]. Mag. of Hist. extra No. 31. Tarrytown, N. Y.: W. Abbott. 74 pp. \$3.55. (Only to subscribers.)
- Esarey, Logan. A history of Indiana from its exploration to 1850. Indianapolis: W. K. Stewart Co. 515 pp. [12 pp. bibl.] \$3.00.
- Finley, J. H. The French in the heart of America. N. Y.: Scribner. 431 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Hess, Ralph H., and Whaling, H. B. Outlines of American railway transportation. Madison, Wis.: Democrat Pr. 208 pp. [31 pp. bibl.] \$1.00.
- Holder, Charles F. The Quakers in Great Britain and America. 2 vols. in 1. Pasadena, Cal.: The Author. 475 Bellefontaine Ave. 669 pp. \$6.00 net.
- Kephart, Horace, editor. Captives among the Indians. [Colonial times.] N. Y.: Outing Pub. 240 pp. \$1.00.
- Lee, Albert S. From the Atlantic to the Pacific; reminiscences of pioneer life and travels [etc.]. Seattle, Wash.: Metropolitan Press. 190 pp. \$1.00.
- Luby, W. A. Wilkes Booth; or the national tragedy. (Mag. of Hist. extra No. 29.) Tarrytown, N. Y.: W. Abbott. 64 pp. \$3.40. (Only to subscribers.)
- McIlvaine, Mabel, compiler. Reminiscences of Chicago during the Civil War. Chicago: R. R. Donnelley & Sons. 194 pp. Privately printed.
- Meany, Edmund S., editor. A new Vancouver journal on the discovery of Puget Sound. Seattle, Wash.: Univ. of Seattle. 43 pp. \$1.00.
- Morton, Oren F. A history of Preston Co., West Va. In 2 vols. Kingwood, West Va.: Journal Pub. Co. \$15.00.
- Olds, Fred A. Guide to the Hall of History of North Carolina. Raleigh, N. C.: M. C. Hist. Com. 97 pp.
- Porter, Eleanor L., compiler. Historical sketches of Bridgewater, Oneida Co., New York. Bridgewater, N. Y. [The Compiler.]. 115 pp. \$2.00.
- Reed, Susan M. Church and state in Massachusetts, 1691-1740. Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Ill. 208 pp. [8 pp. bibl.] \$1.05.
- Ripley, Henry, and Ripley, M. P. Handclasp of the East and West [pioneer life in Colorado]. Denver, Colo.: Williamson-Hoffner, Pr. 471 pp. \$1.50.
- Rising, Oscar E. A New Hampshire lawyer in Gen. Washington's Army. Rochester, N. Y. [The Author, 108 Exchange St.]. 128 pp. \$1.00.
- Ruxton, George F. In the old West. N. Y.: Outing Company. 345 pp. \$1.00.
- Severance, Frank H., editor. Peace episodes on the Niagara and other studies. Buffalo, N. Y.: Buffalo Hist. Soc. 382 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Smith, Frank. Dover farms; development of the territory from 1640 to 1900. Dover, Mass.: History Soc. 152 pp. \$1.00.
- Stackpole, Everett S., and others. History of the town of Durham, New Hampshire. In 2 vols. Durham, N. H. [Off. of Town Clerk.]. \$5.00.
- Stephen, Leslie. "The Times" on the American War. (Mag. of Hist. extra No. 37.) Tarrytown, N. Y.: W. Abbott. 104 pp. \$4.00. (Only to subscribers.)
- Tinkham, George H. California men and events, 1769-1890. Stockton, Cal.: Record Pub. 330 pp. \$2.25.

- Vance, Wilson J. *Stone's River; the turning point of the Civil War.* N. Y.: Neale Pub. Co. 72 pp. \$1.00.
- Wilkey, Walter (pseud.). *Narrative of a tour to "Edensburg," Ill., by Walter Wilkey.* (Mag. of Hist. extra No. 28.) Tarrytown, N. Y.: W. Abbott. 51 pp. \$3.35. (Only to subscribers.)
- Wright, Henry P. *Soldiers of Oakham, Mass., in the Revolutionary War, the War of 1812 and the Civil War.* New Haven, Ct.: Tuttle Morehouse and Taylor Press. 325 pp. \$2.50.

**Ancient History.**

- Lauré, Martin J. *The property concepts of the Early Hebrews.* Iowa City, Ia.: Univ. of Iowa. 98 pp.
- Minns, Ellis H. *Scythians and Greeks.* N. Y.: Putnam. 720 pp. [bibls.]. \$20.00 net.
- Rapson, E. J. *Ancient India from the earliest times to the first century, A. D.* N. Y.: Putnam. 199 pp. [5 pp. bibl.]. 75 cents net.
- Reid, James S. *The municipalities of the Roman Empire.* N. Y.: Putnam. 548 pp. \$3.75 net.
- Snyder, William L. *The military annals of Greece, from the earliest times to the beginning of the Peloponnesian War.* In 2 vols. Boston: Badger. 692 pp. \$3.00 net.

**English History**

- Cramb, John Adam. *The origins and destiny of imperial Britain.* N. Y.: Dutton. 276 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Foord, E., and Home, Gordon. *The invasions of England.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 370 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Hope, W. H. St. John. *A grammar of English heraldry.* N. Y.: Putnam. 127 pp. 40 cents net.
- Leach, A. F. *The schools of medieval England.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 349 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Leyland, John. *The Royal navy; its influence in English history [etc.].* N. Y.: Putnam. 167 pp. 40 cents net.
- Macaulay, T. B., Lord. *The history of England.* In 6 vols. Vol. 5. N. Y.: Macmillan. 2080-2623 pp. \$3.25 net.
- Major, Albany F. *Early wars of Wessex.* N. Y.: Putnam. 238 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Mutschmann, Heinrich. *The place-names of Nottinghamshire [etc.].* N. Y.: Putnam. 179 pp. [3 pp. bibl.]. \$2.50 net.
- Perrett, G. B., compiler. *English history source books. A constitution in the making, 1660-1714.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 120 pp. 35 cents net.
- Protheroe, Ernest. *The British Navy.* N. Y.: Dutton. 694 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Tatham, Geoffrey B. *The Puritans in Power.* N. Y.: Putnam. 282 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Vickers, Kenneth H. *England in the later M. A.* N. Y.: Putnam. 542 pp. \$3.00 net.

**European History**

- Adecock, A. St. J. *In the firing line.* N. Y.: Doran. 192 pp. 50 cents net.
- Bailey, Henry C. *Forty years after; the story of the Franco-German War, 1870.* N. Y.: Doran. 192 pp. 50 cents net.
- Bernhardi, Friedrich A. J. von. *Germany and England.* N. Y.: Dillingham. 93 pp. 50 cents net.
- Clarke, M. E. *Paris waits, 1914.* N. Y.: Putnam. 315 pp. \$1.25 net.
- Cook, Theodore A. *Kaiser, Krupp and Kultur.* N. Y.: Scribner. 178 pp. 75 cents net.
- Coudert, Frederick R., and others. *Why Europe is at War.* N. Y.: Putnam. 170 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Dane, Edmund. *Hacking through Belgium.* N. Y.: Doran. 176 pp. 50 cents net.
- Doyle, Sir Arthur C. *The German War.* N. Y.: Doran. 152 pp. 75 cents net.
- Ingper, Roger. *The fighting retreat to Paris.* N. Y.: Doran. 192 pp. 50 cents net.
- McGuire, James K. *The King, the Kaiser and Irish freedom.* N. Y.: Devin-Adair. 313 pp. \$1.35 net.
- Magnus, Laurie. *The third great war, 1914-15, considered in relation to modern history.* N. Y.: Putnam. 194 pp. \$1.00 net.

- Murray, Mart. *The Russian advance.* N. Y.: Doran. 192 pp. 50 cents net.
- Priest, George M. *Germany since 1740.* Boston: Ginn & Co. 199 pp. \$1.25.
- Rohrbach, Paul. *Germany's Isolation.* Chicago: McClurg. 186 pp. 75 cents net.
- Tittoni, Tommaso. *Italy's foreign and colonial policy.* N. Y.: Dutton. 334 pp. \$2.50 net.

**Miscellaneous.**

- Phillipotts, Bertha S. *Kindred and clan in the M. A.* N. Y.: Putnam. 302 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Alt, ———. *The Mexican revolution and the naturalization of the land.* N. Y.: Mex. Bureau of Inf. 11 pp.
- Andrews, Fannie F. P. *The war; what should be said about it in schools.* Boston: Am. Peace League. 14 pp.
- Frazer, John F. *The conquering Jew.* N. Y.: Funk and Wagnalls. 304 pp. \$1.50 each.
- Jones, J. E. *Mt. Vernon, the home of Washington.* Wash., D. C.: W. S. Press Assn., Bond Bldg. \$1.00 net.
- Longford, Joseph H. *The evolution of New Japan.* N. Y.: Putnam. 166 pp. 40 cents net.
- Steele, Col. S. B. *Forty years in Canada; Reminiscences of the great Northwest.* N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 428 pp. \$5.00 net.

**Biography.**

- Meegan, Beatrice Van C. P. G. T. de Beuregard, Gen. C. S. A. Wash., D. C.: Sudwarth Co. 16 pp. 25 cents.
- Chancellor, William E. *Our presidents and their offices.* N. Y.: Neale Pub. Co. 603 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Crispi, Francesco. *Memoirs of Francesco Crispi.* In 3 vols. Vol. 3. N. Y.: Doran. 358 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Sutcliffe, Mrs. H. C. *Robert Fulton.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 195 pp. 50 cents net.
- Schwarze, W. N. *John Hus, the martyr of Bohemia.* N. Y. and Chicago: Revell. 152 pp. 75 cents net.
- Abbott, William. *Rare Lincolniana, Nos. 5, 6.* (Magazine of History extra Nos. 32, 34.) Tarrytown, N. Y.: W. Abbott. 110 pp. No. 5, \$3.80; No. 6, \$3.75. (Only to subscribers to magazine.)
- Dodge, Maj. Gen. Grenville M. *Personal recollections of President Abraham Lincoln [etc.].* Council Bluffs, Ia.: Monarch Pr. 237 pp. \$1.00.
- Wilbur, Henry W. *President Lincoln's attitude toward slavery [etc.].* Phila., W. H. Jenkins. 220 pp. \$1.25.
- Martin Luther. *Works, in 10 vols. Vol. 1.* Phila.: A. J. Holman Co.: 1222-26 Arch St. \$2.00 net.
- Wood, Walter. *Mary, Queen of Scots.* N. Y.: Doran. 151 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Scrymser, James A. *Personal reminiscences of James A. Scrymser, in times of peace and war.* N. Y.: [The Author, 66 B'way]. 151 pp. Privately printed.
- Preston, W. T. R. *Strathcona and the making of Canada.* N. Y.: McBride, Nast. 324 pp. \$2.50 net.

**Government and Politics.**

- De Witt, Benjamin P. *The progressive movement.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 376 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Eliot, Charles William. *The road toward peace.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 228 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Hull, William I. *The Monroe Doctrine, national or international.* N. Y.: Putnam. 136 pp. 75 cents net.
- Lane, Ralph N. A. *America and the new world-state.* N. Y.: Putnam. 305 pp. \$1.25 net.
- Maltby, Albert E. *Elementary civics for Pennsylvania.* N. Y.: Am. Book Co. 304 pp. 80 cents.
- Reed, Thomas H. *Government for the people.* N. Y.: Huebsch. 265 pp. [bibls.]. \$1.50 net.
- Rose, John C. *An elementary treatise on the jurisdiction and procedure of the Federal courts.* Balto.: King Bros. 406 pp. \$3.50.
- Russell Smith, Hugh F. *Harrington and his Oceana.* N. Y.: Putnam. 223 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Swan, Giles J. *History and civics. Grade 5 B.* N. Y.: Am. Book Co. 305 pp. 50 cents.
- Toulmin, Harry H. *The city manager; a new profession.* N. Y.: Appleton. 310 pp. (9½ pp. bibl.). \$1.50 net.

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FOR EIGHTH GRADE AND HIGH SCHOOL HISTORY, CIVICS AND ECONOMICS

Recommended by and made under supervision of E. E. ROBINSON, Professor of History, and E. P. CUBBERLEY, Head of Education Department Stanford University, H. A. MILLIS, Head of Economics Department, Kansas University, and F. E. HORACK, Professor of Political Science, Iowa University. Used by most Western Universities and large Normals for methods.

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